

Final Report

**Assessment of CBNRM
Best Practices in Tanzania**

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Final Report

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Executive Summary

In January-February 2002, an interdisciplinary team of seven CBNRM specialists associated with the USAID SO2 partnership and supporting organizations carried out an assessment of CBNRM “best practices” in Tanzania. The team visited and reviewed documented case study reports for dozens of CBNRM pilot activities aimed at supporting the community-based management of coastal zones, forests, wildlife, soil and water resources and pastoral areas. Sub-groups of the assessment team then carried out site visits and conducted local level interviews in 11 districts, including Rufiji, Morogoro, Singida, Iringa, Mbozi, Monduli and Serengeti as well as Tanga and several other coastal localities. The preliminary findings from the field visits were presented and discussed at the SO2 partnership retreat in February 2002, and a draft report was prepared, reviewed and finalized.

The fieldwork carried out in early 2002 took advantage of more than two years of policy reviews, fieldwork and related analysis supported by the EPIQ/Tanzania team and SO2 partners in concert with the Sustainable Development Office of USAID’s Africa Bureau. This included the preparation of an issues paper on CBNRM in Tanzania, and well-researched case studies on several community based conservation activities in Tanzania. In preparation for the CBNRM assessment field studies, records in the NRM Tracker database were analyzed and augmented, and relevant literature assembled for the assessment team. A scope of work for the assessment was drafted and discussed by the SO2 CBC Management Regime Working Group, and this working group assisted in developing the criteria for the selection of sites to be visited. The working group was particularly interested in guiding the assessment team to visit sites that met the following criteria:

- Reported to have stimulated or contributed to positive outcomes related to the three target areas (environment, economic, governance) and therefore likely to be good examples or illustrations of “best practices.”
- Activities with proven experience, over at least several years.
- Activities that have been supported by a range of donors and development assistance mechanisms; the assessment was not designed to only examine the experience of USAID-funded activities.

The most recent phase of the assessment was jointly funded by USAID/Tanzania and USAID/Africa Bureau, Sustainable Development Office, in order capitalize on lessons learned from “successful” CBNRM experiences in Tanzania and to contribute those findings to an Africa-wide compilation and analysis of best practices for revitalizing rural Africa, that was presented to the World Summit on Sustainable Development. The Tanzania CBNRM assessment was intended therefore to examine ongoing activities that have worked well and have been successful in stimulating favorable changes in environmental conditions, increased socio-economic benefits, improved governance or otherwise contributing to positive changes in behavior and well-being at the community level. The assessment was not designed to be a

comprehensive evaluation of any given project, nor was it intended to be an in-depth review of Community Based Conservation activities or other CBNRM programs in Tanzania.

Over the past decade, a number of donor agencies and organizations have worked with the Tanzanian government and local communities to launch a series of pilot projects in “community based conservation” and related CBNRM activities. In Tanzania, as elsewhere, CBNRM is perceived to offer a more promising way to manage natural resources than continued reliance on protection by centralized government technical services. CBNRM is often designed and promoted as a partnership between local communities and government. Under the more fully evolved CBNRM approaches, local communities manage their own resources with advice and assistance from government.

CBNRM is fundamentally based on the devolution of responsibilities, rights and authority from central government to local communities and the bodies they designate for management. The transition from centralized NRM to CBNRM can be measured by the level of local control over socio-economic benefits and revenue flows from NRM. At its most advanced, CBNRM refers to community control over resources, implemented with technical and conflict resolution support from national government agencies and district level administration. CBNRM at that point is integrated into the overall land-use and income generation strategies used by rural communities.

Several milestones must be crossed to create the full enabling environment for better natural resources management. The first milestone is crossed when there is sufficient national *political will* to move toward CBNRM by enacting enabling policies, legislation, and regulations to support the devolution of power, and the policy, legal and institutional framework for supporting CBNRM. A second milestone requires establishing clear, simple and transparent procedures for mutual accountability between local, district/provincial and national levels.

There is potentially a strong and positive linkage between CBNRM and poverty alleviation, which has recently emerged as a stated priority of the central government. However, lacking a clearer transfer of rights and authority and increased incentives for CBNRM, the scale of activities and economic contributions to local communities from CBNRM are still relatively modest.

In a recent commentary, the “father” of community-based conservation in Southern Africa, Marshall Murphree, characterized the broad picture of CBC in Africa as “one where successes stand as islands in a sea of initiatives where performance rarely matches promise and is sometimes abysmal.” This report highlights the positive experiences from several “islands” amid the many initiatives in Tanzania.

CBC is not new in Tanzania, as there are a number of localized initiatives with more than a decade of experience. However, in many respects CBC is still at an early stage in Tanzania, and far from realizing its full potential to contribute to the country’s economic development and resource conservation objectives.

As will be apparent from the cases documented in this assessment, the experiences gained in a growing number of pilot activities can be scaled up and more widely replicated. However, such an expansion will require the Government of Tanzania and its partners to address a number of

constraints and to move forward more vigorously to devolve political and economic power, and to implement provisions in new policies that are consistent with CBNRM. In the process, CBNRM can provide a mechanism to support democratic reforms and an expansion of natural resource-based enterprises as a foundation for revitalizing rural development, while simultaneously reducing environmental degradation and contributing to the achievement of biodiversity conservation goals.

The assessment began by deliberating searching out some of the better known examples of “successful” CBNRM initiatives. The fact that the cases reviewed in this assessment are largely driven by projects and have not yet been spontaneously and widely replicated indicates that a favorable enabling environment for CBNRM has not yet been well established in Tanzania. The report includes a number insights about the “conditions for success” that appear to be necessary to trigger successful CBNRM initiatives.

As the record shows from a number of CBNRM activities that have been supported over the past 10-15 years in Tanzania and other African countries with valuable wildlife and forest resources, these activities are not likely to be sustainable unless there is democratic reform and devolution of power to accompany the application of technical best practices and lessons learned.

Although the starting point for many CBNRM activities has been an emphasis on increased community participation in the protection and conservation or “stewardship” of natural resources, this assessment has revealed that community-based management is not likely to succeed if NRM planning and field activities are not well integrated into activities that strengthen local level governance and generate tangible social, economic and financial benefits. In many areas, wildlife populations can be the source of considerable hardship for local communities, who may suffer crop damages and livestock losses without compensation, and even the loss of human lives. A number of pilot activities are being supported, however, to demonstrate how local communities can benefit to a greater degree from wildlife and other natural resources.

In the short term, expanded efforts to promote greater information sharing about the emerging and proven best practices for CBNRM in Tanzania provide a relatively efficient and effective means to stimulate and support the expansion of CBNRM activities, including

- The use of literacy training, bookkeeping, community organization, PRA, formulation of bylaws, legalization of CBOs, participatory local development planning and natural resource-based enterprise development as effective entry points for CBNRM
- Continued focus on meeting the needs for training and capacity building in key areas
- Increase collaboration and support by central and district government technical services for land use planning, NRM planning, adaptation and assistance with participatory natural resource monitoring techniques, oversight of equitable benefit distribution plans, and assistance with marketing, access to credit, enterprise development and joint ventures.

There are numerous signs that local communities were willing to act in the face of threats to their natural resources from destructive fishing practices, over-fishing, uncontrolled bush fires, hunting, poaching, indiscriminate fuelwood harvesting, timber cutting, erosion, and conversion

of rangeland and forestland to other uses (mainly agriculture, commercial farming by outsiders). To be effective, local efforts aimed at resource protection, monitoring and improved management need to be followed up and supported by local authorities responsible for law enforcement and natural resource management. And local investments in resource protection and restoration can be strengthened by a progressive transfer of rights and authority for increased local control over the use of the resource. Experience from Tanzania as well as other countries suggests that communities need to be ensured of:

- Legal recognition and empowerment of community-based organizations with a mandate, responsibility and powers to implement CBNRM activities.
- Support and collaboration from government agencies responsible for allocation of quotas and devolution of CBNRM rights and powers.
- Assistance and support with the identification and demarcation of areas reserved for CBNRM activities.
- Legitimization and legal recognition of land use plans produced through participatory planning exercises and in collaboration with local authorities.
- Clarification and transfer of authority to levy and collect fines and other revenues from NRM activities.
- Clarification and transfer of authority to decide upon resource access and to issue permits for use and harvesting of resources within designated CBNRM areas.
- Clarification and transfer of authority to decide upon and monitor distribution of benefits.
- Technical support in NRM planning, inventory, monitoring, promotion of sustainable use practices.
- Technical and financial support for the development of natural resource based enterprises and accessing new markets for their higher-valued products.
- Investments at the local level in resource protection, restoration and more intensive management are linked to income-generation, jobs, and a greater flow of products and services to the community.

Recommendations

It is not the intent of this report to recommend the specific details of a CBNRM strategy and national program for Tanzania. There are a number of working groups, task forces and other initiatives that are well positioned to support the stakeholder consultation process and other activities that could be organized to develop and launch such a program. At this time, we would suggest the following next steps:

1. Circulate the assessment report to all key stakeholders, in order to obtain additional complementary information and commentary on the assessment findings.

2. Prepare “user friendly” summaries of the assessment report and commentaries and disseminate to community leaders and key decision makers
3. Use the assessment results in awareness raising and training activities organized to promote and support CBNRM.
4. Promote networking, information sharing as well as continued assessments and “stocktaking” exercises to expand and update lessons learned and best practices
5. Support more community to community exchanges and other activities designed to build capacity among community-based organizations
6. Develop and adopt a common vision for achieving CBNRM and identify priorities for corresponding support programs and assistance activities, including establishment of a mechanism to monitor and report on progress in achieving key benchmarks and the necessary conditions necessary for the “take off” and widespread replication and expansion of CBNRM
7. Accelerate efforts to harmonize and strengthen the legal and regulatory framework for CBNRM across all NRM subsectors.
8. Apply the insights gained from program monitoring and evaluation, improved information management and “collective learning” among CBNRM stakeholders in Tanzania to make needed adjustment in policies and program priorities.
9. Support mechanisms for local level networking and the emergence of federations of CBOs to build a stronger constituency and more effective voice for governance reforms that support CBNRM.

1. Introduction

Many organizations and governments have supported environmental and natural resource programs in Africa for a number of years. In USAID, the environment/natural resource team of the Africa Bureau, Office of Sustainable Development (AFR/SD) in Washington, DC, has had the mandate to add value to field programs by identifying, organizing and disseminating information about “best practices” and lessons learned about natural resource management (NRM) in Africa. The E/NR team aims to help promote the use and adoption of approaches to NRM that are effective, efficient and equitable in promoting resource conservation and broad-based sustainable economic growth.

As part of that effort and in collaboration with USAID/Tanzania and a number of other field missions and partners, AFR/SD prepared a synthesis of the lessons learned from environmental program investments, with particular attention to community based natural resource management (CBNRM) activities in representative African countries. The initial product of this synthesis is a discussion paper entitled “Nature, Wealth, and Power: Emerging Best Practice for Revitalizing Rural Africa.”¹ This NWP synthesis was timely for a number of reasons external and internal to USAID. On the international front, the World Summit on Sustainable Development was scheduled in August 2002, to take stock of the progress since the Rio Conference on Environment and Development in 1992. There are a number of related Africa-wide initiatives, including the NEPAD (New Partnership for African Development), which are seeking to transform and revitalize development approaches in Africa, and which could potentially benefit from the application of lessons learned from past program investments.

As the cases identified in the Tanzania assessment and elsewhere demonstrate, CBNRM has the potential to both contribute to rural economic development and promote democratic institutions through increased public participation in decisions about managing valuable resources at the local level. An additional motivation for this synthesis is that the mandate for analyzing and dissemination of CBNRM best practices within USAID is now shifting from the Africa regional bureau to a new central bureau for Economic Growth, Agriculture and Trade (EGAT). It is hoped that the compilation of a state-of-the-art report will not only serve to improve the effectiveness of development strategies and strengthen field level programs, but also contribute to packaging the institutional memory gained from decades of AFR/SD support to Mission programs, and thereby help facilitate the transfer of knowledge to the new entity within USAID.

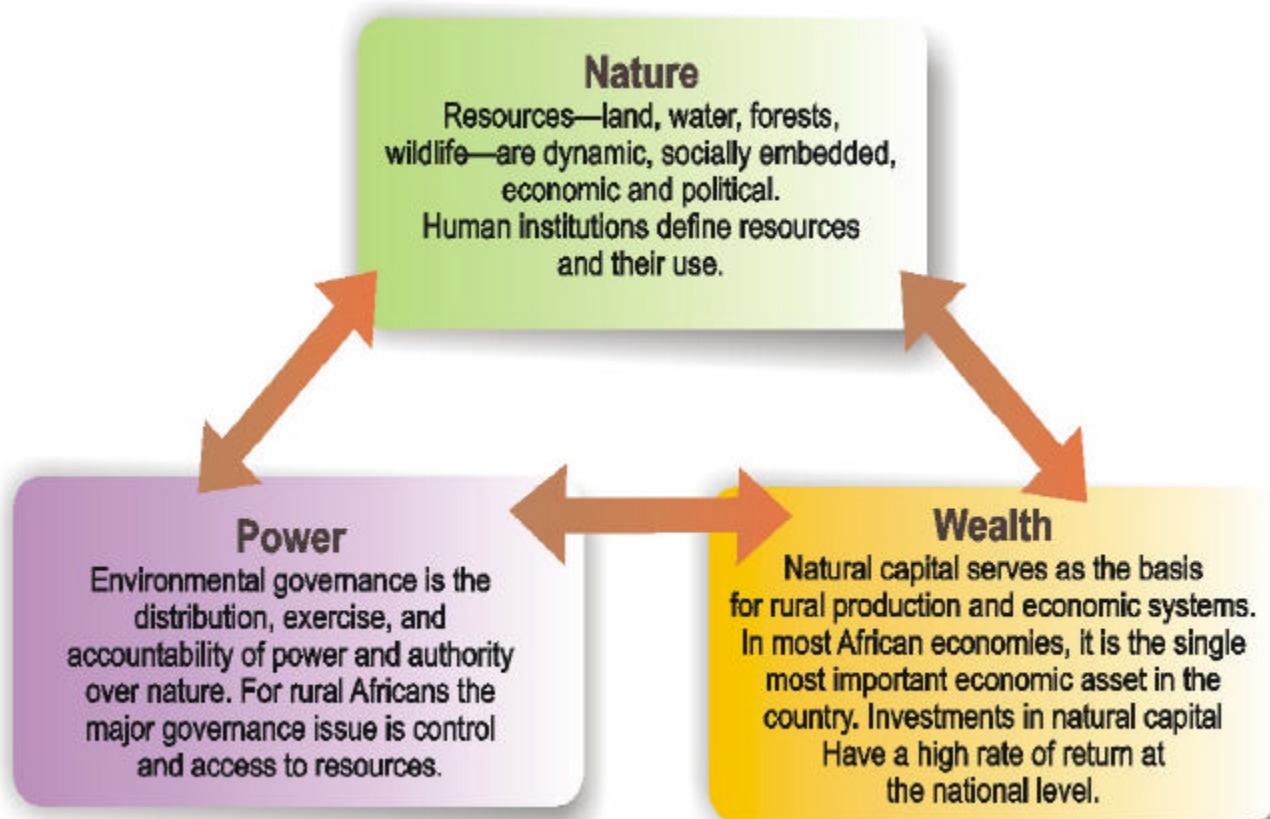
The NWP synthesis report was conceived to reflect field experiences from around Africa. The Tanzania assessment was designed therefore as part of this broader effort to review CBNRM experiences in selected countries in West Africa (including Guinea, the Gambia, Senegal, Mali, Burkina Faso, Niger, Benin and Ghana) as well as Uganda, Madagascar, Namibia and Botswana. Previous reviews have been undertaken by a number of organizations. USAID’s prior work has

¹ *Nature, Wealth and Power* was initially distributed in August 2002 and is available in English and French on line at www.frameweb.org. It was prepared by USAID/AFR/SD in collaboration with the Center for International Forestry Research, Winrock International, World Resources Institute, and International Resources Group.

either been sub-region or country specific.² The NWP synthesis is the first time that USAID has attempted a comprehensive pan-African review of natural resource management programs.

Insights gained from previous reviews have revealed the need to recognize the dynamic nature of resources, the critical role of the “drivers” or factors that strongly influence sustainable resource management, the continuing challenges to be considered, and other major issues to be addressed in order to “scale up” and widely promote the adoption of CBNRM practices. This work has identified three major categories where lessons have been learned and which appear to be key to the sustainable use and improved management of natural resources. These categories are environmental management, socio-economic benefits and improved governance. Together, these three aspects form a simple and evolving working framework around which to dialogue about CBNRM (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Nature-Wealth-Power: Definitions and Linkages



² See for example, *Investing in Tomorrow's Forests: Toward an Action Agenda for Revitalizing Forestry in West Africa*, prepared by USAID in collaboration with the Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS) and International Resources Group in August 2002. English and French versions on line at www.frameweb.org.

2. Objectives and Scope of the CBNRM Assessment

In January 2002, USAID/Tanzania, with the agreement of the Wildlife Department as head of the Community-Based Conservation Management Regime Working Group, accepted a proposal from AID/Washington's Africa Bureau Office of Sustainable Development to carry out an assessment of CBNRM best practices in Tanzania as part of the broader USAID review of lessons learned from CBNRM in Africa. The Wildlife Department also recommended that specific lessons from Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) should best be done in a "stocktaking" exercise in 2004, after the expected WMA regulations have been finalized and approved and more experience has been gained from legally established WMAs. In the interim, the assessment team was asked to look broadly across sectors for general patterns that might prove helpful to the Wildlife Department and CBNRM partners as they move towards implementation of the provisions of the new Wildlife Policy regarding WMAs. (see text box on the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania)

During the SO2 program partnership retreat in January 2001, it had been pointed out valuable insights could be gained from looking at "best practices" and "lessons learned" from CBNRM experiences in the field. Accordingly, the CBNRM assessment aimed to examine ongoing activities that have worked well and have been successful in stimulating favorable changes in environmental conditions, increased socio-economic benefits, improved governance or otherwise contributing to positive changes in behavior and well-being at the community level. The assessment was not designed to be a comprehensive evaluation of any given project, nor was it intended to be an in-depth review of all Community Based Conservation activities or other CBNRM programs in Tanzania.

Two major objectives of the assessment in Tanzania (and in other countries where similar activities have been carried out) are:

- To contribute to increased broad-based economic growth through increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of CBNRM programs, and
- To identify, analyze, capitalize and systematize successful CBNRM experiences, approaches and lessons learned.

2.1 Preparation for the Assessment Process

The field studies carried out in January 2002 took advantage of a number of previous efforts that had been organized to review and document CBC experiences in Tanzania. For example, between 1998-2000, the EPIQ/Tanzania team facilitated a policy study tour to Namibia, Zimbabwe and Botswana to examine CBNRM experiences in Southern Africa, and prepared a number of case studies, briefs and summary reports on "lessons learned from CBC in

Key Provisions of the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania

The Wildlife Policy of 1998 notes the new objective “to transfer the management of WMA to local communities thus taking care of corridors, migration routes and buffer zones and ensure that the local communities obtain substantial tangible benefits from wildlife conservation” (p. 10), and help to protect wildlife against illegal use by “devolving responsibility for containing illegal use of wildlife in WMAs to rural communities” (p. 12), and to ensure that wildlife conservation competes with other forms of land use by “encouraging rural communities to establish WMA in such areas of critical wildlife habitat with the aim of ensuring that wildlife can compete with other forms of land use that may jeopardize wildlife populations and movements” (p. 16). Furthermore that a strategy to encourage rural communities to value wildlife is “to facilitate the establishment of CBC programmes in WMAs by helping the rural communities to have secure ownership / long term use rights of their land and enabling them to use the wildlife and natural resources on that land” (p. 19-20).

The policy also provides that “the local communities living adjacent to Protected Areas or in areas with viable populations of wildlife have a role in managing and benefiting from wildlife on their own lands, by creating WMAs” (p. 33) and “the government will facilitate the establishment of a new category of protected area known as WMA, where local people will have full mandate of managing and benefiting from their conservation efforts, through community based conservation programmes” (p. 34).

Although the new Wildlife Policy of Tanzania was adopted in 1998, the necessary legislative reforms, regulations and guidelines that the government feels are required to legally establish and officially operationalize WMAs have not yet been fully promulgated. However, a number of “pilot” WMAs have in fact been operating to some degree for several years.

Tanzania.”³ For the past 15 years, GTZ has worked with the Government of Tanzania and local partners to support wildlife management and community development, and they published a set of discussion papers on Experiences with Community Based Wildlife Conservation in Tanzania in 2001.⁴ In January 2001, a review of the literature on CBNRM experiences in Tanzania led to the preparation of a CBNRM “issue paper.”⁵ Since that time, efforts have been underway to share documentation about assessments in West Africa and elsewhere via the AFR/SD–supported activities of FRAME and NRM Tracker (see www.frameweb.org and www.nrmtracker.org) and through associated outreach workshops.

In the latter half of 2001, a consultative process was organized to develop the assessment scope of work (SOW), compile background documentation, organize the assessment team and identify sites for field visits. This preparatory process culminated in a review of the revised SOW and updated plans for the CBNRM assessment field visits by the CBC Management Regime

³ See for example, summary report by George Jambiya, *Community Based Conservation Experience in Tanzania—An Assessment of Lessons Learned*, EPIQ/Tanzania, August 2000.

⁴ See Tanzania Wildlife Discussion Paper no. 29, edited by R. D. Baldus and L. Siege, with the Wildlife Division and the GTZ Wildlife Programme in Tanzania.

⁵ See report by Fred Sowers, consultant to IRG under the EPIQ/AFR-SD task order, entitled: *Tanzania Stocktaking of Community-Based Conservation and Natural Resources Management: CBC/NRM Issues Paper*, January 2001.

Working Group (MRWG) during its meeting in Bagamoyo in January 2002.⁶ (See Annex A for the full Scope of Work of the Assessment.)

2.2 Organization of the Assessment Team and Field Work

In the week following the CBC MRWG meeting, the CBNRM assessment field team was mobilized to carry out the proposed fieldwork. The assessment team was coordinated by Asukile Kajuni of USAID/Tanzania and Hussein Sosovele of WWF/Tanzania. Janis Alcorn, IRG/EPIQ consultant, provided technical support to the team. The overall composition of the assessment team and participation in the fieldwork was as follows:

Team Member	Title/Expertise	Institution	Sites Visited
Asukile Kajuni	Co-coordinator, Wildlife Management	USAID/Tanzania	TanzaKesho (Mbozi), BOMIPA, (Tungamalenga); Cullman & Hurt, Manyara Trustland
Hussein Sosovele	Co-coordinator, Economist	WWF/Tanzania	Familiar with TanzaKesho and other sites from previous visits
Audax Mujuni	Policy Program Assistant	WWF/Tanzania	Mgori and Jukumu
Janis Alcorn	Social scientist and CBNRM specialist	IRG-EPIQ/AFR-SD consultant	Ngarambe, Mgori, TanzaKesho, MBOMIPA (Tungamalenga)
Robin Martino	Biodiversity Conservation specialist	USAID/Washington	Jukumu, Robanda, Ololosokwan
Richard Volk	Integrated Coastal Management specialist	USAID/Washington	Tanga, Pangani coastal districts
Dan Evans	Agricultural economist	USAID/REDSO	Robanda, Manyara Trustland, Cullman and Hurt, Ololosokwan

The fieldwork for the assessment was organized to capture experiences in CBNRM across a range of natural resource management sub-sectors, including: Coastal Zone Management, Community Forestry / Biodiversity, Wildlife / Community-based Tourism, Pastoral / Rangeland Management, Land Use and Community based Development. The assessment was also designed to provide broad geographic coverage across a number of representative districts.

In selecting the sites to be visited, the CBC MRWG and the team used the following additional criteria:

⁶ See Trip Report on Planning for the CBC/NRM Stocktaking and attachments, prepared by Kara Page, IRG, for AFR/SD and USAID/Tanzania, December 2001.

- Reported to have stimulated or contributed to positive outcomes related to the three target areas (environment, economic, governance) and therefore likely to be good examples or illustrations of “best practices.”
- Activities with proven experience, over at least several years.
- Activities that have been supported by a range of donors and development assistance mechanisms; the assessment was not designed to only examine the experience of USAID-funded activities.

The following CBNRM sites and activities were visited during the assessment:

Village / Site	District	Supporting Project	Funding Agency
Tanga and adjacent coastal districts	Tanga, Muheza, Pangani Districts	Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Programme	IUCN, Irish Aid
Ngarambe Village, bordering Selous Game Reserve (SGR)	Rufiji	Selous Eastern Sector Conservation and Management Project	WWF/UK, WWF Switzerland
Dhuthumi and buffer zone near SGR	Morogoro	JUKUMU (federation of 19 villages) Pilot Wildlife Management Area – Selous Conservation Programme	GTZ
Mgori Forest: Ngimu, Unyampana Ndumghanghanga	Singida	Land Management Programme – LAMP	SIDA
Tungamalenga	Iringa	Sustainable Use of Wild Resources in Idodi and Pawaga – MBOMIPA	DFID
Mbozi Mission Ukwile, Chipaka	Mbozi	TanzaKesho (Capacity 21)	UNDP, Mbozi District Council
Imairet Primary School	Monduli	Cullman and Hurt Community Wildlife Project	Private Hunting Company/Outfitter
Robanda, west of Serengeti National Park	Serengeti	Robanda Community – Private Tour Operator Partnership	Private tour operators
Manyara Trustland Esilalei, Oltukai	Monduli	Tanzania Land Conservation Trust – Manyara Trustland	USAID - AWF

The SO2 partnership was also encouraged to identify opportunities for strengthening information sharing among SO2 partners and other CBNRM stakeholders, in order to build upon the momentum of this initial assessment and to foster continuing analysis and learning from lessons

learned in CBNRM. Several ideas generated from this discussion are included in the final section of the report.

2.3 Context for CBNRM Experiences in Tanzania

Over the past decade, a number of donor agencies and organizations have worked with the Tanzanian government and local communities to launch a series of pilot projects in “community based conservation” and related CBNRM activities. In Tanzania, as elsewhere, CBNRM is perceived to offer a more promising way to manage natural resources than continued reliance on protection by centralized government technical services.

Both within and outside the context of community based natural resource management, the goal of NRM is to develop and apply cost effective management systems that control access and use of natural resources, so as to provide for their optimal and sustainable levels of utilization and positive returns on investments in management. Such management systems should be technically and socially sound so as to ensure that the productivity of these resources is stable or increases over time. A productive resource base and favorable economic incentives are prerequisites for long term success in meeting socio-economic needs. Democratic, participatory, accountable and transparent systems of governance and benefit distribution are increasingly being recognized as an integral part of effective NRM systems.

These resilient, local management systems also need to have positive cross-scale links to district and national government that bring information from the analysis of larger-scale processes (ecological and political) and help to reinforce systems for oversight and mutual accountability. Experience from around the world suggests that the ideal system ultimately turns authority for decision-making and management over to communities with clear governance structures and access to technical advice from wildlife and forestry departments (as, for example, in Oaxaca, Mexico, where communities control their own forests which they have logged commercially and sustainably for over a decade).

CBNRM is often designed and promoted as a partnership between local communities and government. Under the more fully evolved CBNRM approaches, local communities manage their own resources with advice and assistance from government. The approach capitalizes on the fact that local people living with the wildlife and forests are well situated to use local knowledge to respond to changes in resource productivity (due to variable rainfall, land use pressures or other factors) and other feedback from the ecosystem in which they live and from which they extract benefits. They can organize themselves into institutions in accordance with their traditions, commonly held interests, and available information about the condition of the resource base. Regional scale ecological processes (such as wildlife movements, fluctuations in fisheries and upstream/downstream watershed changes) and national public interests can be integrated into local decision-making through good communication and technical advice, as well as through policy frameworks that identify the responsibilities and rights of all partners and stakeholders.

CBNRM is fundamentally based on the devolution of responsibilities, rights and authority from central government to local communities and the bodies they designate for management. The transition from centralized NRM to CBNRM can be measured by the level of local control over

socio-economic benefits and revenue flows from NRM. Globally, the term CBNRM is applied to a wide range of situations along a transitional axis from full state control toward full community control, where local people make management decisions and benefit from the resources. In centralized states, CBNRM is often used to describe situations where local people are mobilized as labor for government programs under state control—particularly in situations where the resource has high monetary value. Toward the middle of the CBNRM transitional axis, decision-making authority remains with central government, but NRM service and administration functions are decentralized from central government to regional and district level government and co-management provides some benefits to local people.

At its most advanced, CBNRM refers to community control over resources, implemented with technical and conflict resolution support from national government agencies and district level administration. CBNRM at that point is integrated into the overall land-use and income generation strategies used by rural communities. Just as rural families don't wait for the government to tell them when or what to plant but instead make decisions that take into account information from technical extension agents, under full CBNRM, rural communities are likewise free to evaluate local ecological conditions and decide how to manage the harvest of their fish, wildlife, and forests with technical advice from government agencies. This ideal image of CBNRM is articulated in UNDP's Capacity 21 Tanza Keshu vision for Tanzania in 2025.

Moving from traditional state-based management to full CBNRM takes time. Government dependence on current revenue distribution schemes and existing management regimes are difficult to transform overnight. The transition requires shifting from centralized planning and management in ways that shed old habits and create a new central government role, as technical assistance provider and watchdog for public good. The old emphasis on looking after the well-being of the State, through enforcement, compliance and regulation gives way to a new emphasis of improving the well-being of local communities, through local empowerment, oversight, monitoring and consultation. In this new role, government needs to be accountable to citizens and demand good performance from district and local governments, while at the same time building the trust of citizens (be demonstrating that it is committed to serving local communities, and not corrupt) and enhancing citizens' opportunities to hold all levels of government accountable. Clearly, such a transformation and shift in behaviors is not easy to achieve. The challenge is to enact and implement reforms at all levels of government, from central headquarters at the national level, to regional levels and eventually including every district and local office.⁷

Several milestones must be crossed to create the full enabling environment for better natural resources management. The first milestone is crossed when there is sufficient national *political will* to move toward CBNRM by enacting enabling policies, legislation, and regulations to support the devolution of power, and the *policy, legal and institutional framework* for supporting CBNRM. Taxation and other fiscal policies and revenue sharing arrangements often

⁷ Over the past several years, the World Bank has financed an ambitious effort to promote far-reaching changes in the institutional and legal framework for environmental management (ILFEMP), but the recommendations emerging from this activity have yet to be fully implemented.

need to be revamped or adjusted to remove disincentives and to promote greater socio-economic and institutional incentives for CBNRM.

A second milestone requires establishing *clear, simple and transparent procedures for mutual accountability* between local, district/provincial and national levels. District/provincial level reforms are essential to reduce rent-seeking behavior by politically powerful interests, although the reduction and control of such behavior requires pressures and oversight from both national government and local constituencies.

Although most sectors have passed new and relatively progressive policies within the past several years, and while there is a variable degree of progress in different sectors or program areas (such as wildlife, forestry, fisheries, coastal zone management, environmental assessment and protection), in the aggregate, Tanzania is at the first milestone of such a CBNRM enabling process. Much work remains to be done to fully implement policies that support an enabling environment for CBNRM. The assessment confirmed that there are numerous exciting pilots for community-based management of wildlife, forests, coastal resources and community-directed sustainable development. And the assessment identified some “conditions for success” that could be used to expand and extend national program support for CBNRM.

One proven way to catalyze change in the enabling environment is elegantly simple—launch national government programs to empower community based organizations responsible for CBNRM activities, while seeking to build trust with local communities and assisting them to demand accountability from district government. This approach creates strong local constituencies that demand accountability from both mid-level government (at district and regional levels) and from the national government agencies with policies that are in principle fully consistent with CBNRM and could contribute more broadly to environmentally sustainable development. This program approach has had positive impacts for natural resources management and democratic transition in Namibia, Zimbabwe, and Mexico, for example. The seeds of such an approach are present in the CBNRM pilot programs in Tanzania, but in view of the currently operative constraints and remaining challenges to be addressed, a deeper and broader expression of political will for such democratic reform as well as expanded program support will be needed to move CBNRM forward significantly.

2.4 The Political Transition Influencing Progress Toward CBNRM in Tanzania

The current status of CBNRM reflect the current status of Tanzania’s transition to democracy. Tanzania is slowly moving from an authoritarian one party state toward a more effective multi-party democracy. The first multiparty elections were held in 1995 and a series of reform laws were passed in the late 1990s. There remain, however, significant restrictions on freedom of access to information, freedom of the press and freedom of association. There are new policies and laws related to decentralization and local government reform, titling of village lands, and expanded access to courts. While these new laws have their weaknesses, they do offer opportunities for moving forward with local control and benefit from resources that have been under state control for state benefit—including wildlife, forests, fisheries and other natural resources. Civil society associations and the capacities of many NGOs are not well developed (as can be expected at this stage of a democratic transition), and villagers are generally unaware of

their rights and the implications of these new laws. Hence, there is little advocacy or downward accountability for implementing and using the new laws to re-organize societal relationships.

As documented in the findings presented in this report, CBNRM has been most effective by taking advantage of the local government reforms that enable village government to draft and enforce by-laws (which must still be approved by district council and national government). CBNRM is also progressing in cases where village government has an effective working relationship with district government that is seriously attempting to move toward downward accountability; and/or where communities have worked with NGOs to find creative solutions that push the envelope of what is politically possible.

The sectoral policies themselves do not effectively support real community empowerment by promoting downward accountability. Central government continues to retain the lion's share of power and revenues from natural resources, and has proved reluctant to redistribute the revenue and to clearly and firmly transfer resource ownership from the State to its citizens, or to devolve rights and authority for managing resources to local communities. Furthermore, the sectoral policies are not harmonized to prevent conflict over resource management regimes—e.g., communities who have been planting and protecting mangroves under a coastal management regime are confronted with loggers authorized by the forestry department to harvest the same mangroves as part of the forestry management regime.

There is potentially a strong and positive linkage between CBNRM and *poverty alleviation*, which has recently emerged as a stated priority of the central government. However, lacking a clearer transfer of rights and authority and increased incentives for CBNRM, the scale of activities and economic contributions to local communities from CBNRM are still relatively modest. For example, the assessment revealed that many local communities are currently only managing local accounts with a few hundred dollars in receipts, while the Wildlife Division receives \$6-8 million annually from the allocation of hunting block concessions. The case of the Ololosokwan Village in Loliondo Division and a number of other Conservation Business Ventures is indicative of the greater financial returns that are possible, as well as the continuing tensions between local empowerment and continued control by central government agencies. (see box on Ololosokwan).

The Ololosokwan and ConsCorp story—from the local perspective

Ololosokwan Village is in Loliondo Division, Ngorongoro District, and it covers approximately 115,000 acres, with a population of about 3,500; the majority of the villagers are members of the Purko section of the Maasai ethnic group.

They acquired a village deed (99-year lease) in 1990, but in 1992, a Tanzania cattle producer was given a deed (33-year lease) to 25,000 acres, part of which overlapped with village lands identified in their deed. The cattle company build a lodge for tourists instead of raising cattle (Klein's Camp) and sold the lodge and land to Conservation Corporation Africa, despite the confusion of overlapping leases. The village seemed to have a stronger legal position due to its longer length of lease, and the village went to the African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) for assistance to facilitate resolution of this problem out of court. They villagers felt that they did not have the means to operate a lodge on their own and wanted instead to strike a deal with ConsCorp or CCA.

In 1999, they negotiated an agreement that pays them \$1.50 per acre (increasing 5% per year) for 15 years. The village also earns money from land set aside for mobile camping. In 1999, they earned \$33,000, in 2000, \$39,000, and in 2001, they earned \$65,000. In addition, 80% of the CCA staff come from the village and CCA has implemented a policy of training for both management and non-management staff. The government also receives taxes from ConsCorp. The funding has been used to purchase and maintain improved breeds of cattle, to build teachers houses and to maintain a dispensary. In addition, scholarship funds are provided to support secondary school students (20 this year) and one student at the University of Dar Es Salaam.

Klein's Camp has significantly improved the village's access to health care by supplying a doctor and ambulatory services to the Wasso Hospital located three hours by vehicle from the village, in addition to a link with the Tanzania flying doctors service which visits the village every two weeks. Another biophysical benefit is the protection of the Loliondo corridor for migrating wildlife that connects Maasai Mara with the Serengeti and provides for seasonal use by wildebeest and other migratory wildlife. In addition to its economic and biophysical results, the improved wildlife management has resulted in peace between Masai and Kikuyu communities that previously rustled each others cattle. Now they sit together and talk about the resources.

The activity is overseen by a steering group with three people from ConsCorp and three representatives from village. Money is kept in a separate account from village accounts and village assembly authorizes expenditures.

Despite the locally important and positive impacts, a number of outstanding issues have yet to be fully resolved. The operation is technically illegal under the Wildlife Division regulations that prohibit tour operators from operating in hunting blocks. The hunting company is still in the area although there is reportedly poor communication between the hunting company and the village. They have had armed confrontations with residents.

TANAPA is working to resolve other issues with the village. TANAPA constructed and occupies a ranger outpost on village land. The Village does not want TANAPA to relocate the outpost, but has requested them to acknowledge in a Memorandum of Understanding or in some official manner that the structure exists on village land. The primary concern on the part of the village is that this outpost may lead to an extension of the TANAPA park boundaries.

3. Coastal Resource Management in Tanzania

Tanzania is blessed with a rich coastline that contains some of the most important mangrove and coral reef resources in East Africa. More than a quarter—approximately 8 million people—of the country's population reside in one of five mainland coastal regions encompassing 15 percent of the country's total land area. Coastal regions support three-quarters of the industrial base and are responsible for approximately one-third of the national GDP.⁸ It is difficult to overstate the local, national, and regional socioeconomic and ecological importance of the Tanzanian coast.

3.1 Policy, Legal, and Institutional Framework

The Constitution of Tanzania establishes that policies and laws regarding natural resources management, including those pertaining to coastal and marine resources, are developed and implemented by Central Government. While Central Government has the constitutional authority to make laws, the authority for various aspects of implementation and enforcement is delegated to district governments. Decentralization is further clarified and strengthened through the Local Government Reform Act, which has stimulated the creation of village environmental management committees nationwide. A centralized regulatory system is expensive to administer, and it is clearly government's desire (at least with regard to coastal and marine resources) to strengthen local government authority, involvement, and accountability in implementing community-based natural resources management. It is encouraging that there are a growing number of community organizations, village committees, and NGOs that are becoming institutionally stronger and can provide the foundation for resource management at the local level.

In 1997, the Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership (TCMP) was established to improve national coastal planning, policy and management, and to coordinate such efforts at both the national and local levels.⁹ The Partnership is a network of existing coastal programs/projects, government departments, citizen groups, scientists, and the private sector, with the aim to achieve participatory and transparent decision-making on the priorities and key strategies needed to promote effective coastal management in the country. A wide range of ministries participate in the Partnership, including the Ministries of Natural Resources and Tourism (with forest, fishery, tourist, and park regulatory responsibilities); Lands and Human Settlement; Trade and Industry; Water; Agriculture and Cooperatives; Energy and Minerals; and Home Affairs.¹⁰ In 2001, the TCMP completed and submitted a National Coastal Management Strategy that is currently under consideration for Parliament approval.

Within this context of efforts to harmonize policies and improve inter-sectoral coordination at the national level, several coastal programs/projects continue to make progress working with

⁸ TCMP, 2001b.

⁹ TCMP, 2001b.

¹⁰ Makaramba and Kweka, 1999.

district and village governments, communities, and resource users. This assessment focuses mainly on one of those activities, the Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Program, and to a lesser degree on two additional efforts: the TCMP process to develop District Action Plans; and the Mafia Island Marine Park. Readers may be interested to pursue an understanding of other community-based coastal programs underway in Tanzania, a list of which includes (at a minimum): Mnazi Bay Marine Park; Dar es Salaam Marine Reserve; Kinondoni Integrated Coastal Area Management Programme; Rural Integrated Project Support (Mtwara and Lindi Districts); Rufiji Environment Management Project; Mnemba Island Marine Reserve; Menai Bay Conservation Area; Chumbe Island Marine Park; Chwaka Bay-Paje Conservation Area; and Misali Island Marine Conservation Area.

3.2 Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Program

In 1994, with funding and technical assistance from IUCN and Irish Aid, the northern coastal region of Tanzania began a process that is now recognized as one of the most successful examples of community-based natural resources management (CBNRM) in East Africa. The Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Program (TCZCDP, hereafter the 'Program') supports collaboration between Central Government, Regional and District authorities, and the approximately 150,000 people residing in 45 villages in the Tanga Municipality, and Pangani and Muheza Districts comprising the Tanga region.

The Tanga region includes 150 km of coastline stretching from the Kenya border to the southern part of Pangani District. Residents are highly dependent on coastal resources for subsistence and income earning livelihood and, of course, overall quality-of-life. The region is endowed with ecologically important and diverse habitats, including coral reefs, seagrass beds, coastal forests, and mangrove forests, and supports economically important commercial and artisanal fisheries.

As a result of preliminary resource assessments conducted in the early 1990s under the auspices of IUCN, the Program undertook a collaborative process of village-level action planning and implementation to address priority resource management issues. The Program adopted a four-step approach of 'listening,' 'piloting,' 'demonstration,' and 'mainstreaming' to achieve an expansion of activities from an initial three pilot villages to today's work in 28 of the region's 45 villages. Principal issues addressed by the Program include overfishing, destructive fishing, mangrove deforestation, coastal erosion, poor government enforcement, and limited options for improving villager livelihoods.¹¹

During Phase I (1994-1997), the Program focused on institution and capacity-building for integrated coastal management (ICM) for both district and village governments. Training, technical assistance, and funding was provided to support a collaborative process of Participatory Rapid Assessment (PRA) which resulted in enhanced awareness of socioeconomic and natural resource issues, and the beginning of a sense of Program 'ownership' among stakeholders. Experimentation with 'early actions' was also carried out during this 'listening and piloting' stage of Phase I.

¹¹ Torell, et al., 2000.

During Phase II (1997-2000), efforts focused on the well being of people, and were made to modify and replicate successful management actions to villages neighboring the three pilot villages. Actions were taken to develop cost-share arrangements and field-test new practices, including monitoring and enforcement in designated ‘management areas’. Considerable effort has been made to facilitate dialogue, consensus building, and cooperation between villages in the development and legal adoption of Village by-laws that form the basis for specific NRM-related rules and regulations. In short, the Program worked during this ‘demonstration’ period to address management issues (e.g., fisheries management, mangrove restoration, etc.) that require inter-village collaboration and ecosystem-scale approaches.

The Program is working today on a Phase III (2001-2003) to ‘mainstream’ activities in each of five fisheries management areas extending across the entire region, while seeking to institutionalize the recurrent budgetary resources that will be needed to sustain operations beyond the period of donor support. District and Village governments are being asked to contribute more resources (cash and in-kind) to various services (e.g., monitoring and enforcement) that are seen as essential to the long-term sustainability of management efforts. The following is a discussion of some of the changes and key features related to three broad aspects of the Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Program.

Biophysical Aspects

Several notable successes in the management of biophysical resources of the region can be attributed to the Program during its first seven years of operation. Perhaps most significantly, there appears to be widespread perception among villagers that the overfishing and destructive fishing practices of the past are beginning to be brought under control. There is even some quantitative evidence of a 30 percent increase in the number of reef fish now inhabiting closed coral reef areas.¹² The Program and its stakeholder communities have accomplished this with the creation of management areas that unite adjacent villages in five sub-regions under a commonly agreed set of management goals, objectives, and actions. Rules and regulations for the management areas have been developed through grassroots discussions among all interested stakeholders, and approved sequentially through Village, District, and Central Governments. All of this is highly significant, considering that 95 percent of fishing in Tanzania is conducted by artisanal fishers mainly along inshore areas of the coast.¹³

The Tanga region was formerly known to suffer heavily from dynamite fishing, with 70 percent of coral significantly damaged and another 10 percent beyond recovery.¹⁴ Although it will take several years (or decades in some cases) for full recovery, the fact that a decades-old fishing practice has been virtually (although not entirely) eliminated in a little more than two years of community-based action planning, has bolstered local enthusiasm and support for the five management areas. In addition, certain gear types and practices (e.g., seine net fishing and

¹² Torell, et al., 2000.

¹³ TCMP, 2001b.

¹⁴ Torell, et al., 2000.

poison fishing) were also reported by villagers during this assessment to be eliminated or significantly curtailed.

There are now 28 out of 45 villages participating in five management areas that encompass virtually the entire coast of the region. These management areas are supported by Village by-laws, and three of these now have further provision for closed areas within which no marine harvest is allowed. There is anecdotal evidence (villager perception) that fish stocks have increased, and that so has the health of coral reefs within the management areas. It is believed that recovery from coral bleaching associated with the 1998 El Nino event was faster and more complete within the closed areas.¹⁵

Villagers in several communities have re-planted areas where mangroves had been destroyed by overharvest or intentional destruction (as by hotel developers wanting to open visual access to the sea). Several thousand mangrove seedlings have been planted with reported survival rates on the order of 90-95 percent. These actions have helped to alleviate coastal erosion (e.g., Tongoni Village), and to create regional awareness of the ecological services that mangroves provide.

Working to consolidate regional environmental awareness, the Program has involved community members in the ongoing monitoring and enforcement efforts associated with the management areas. Volunteer monitoring of basic indicators has proven helpful in maintaining village enthusiasm and support for the new rules and regulations within their management area. Villagers indicate that they gain satisfaction from being part of a regional effort to manage the environment. Monitoring is conducted on simple indicators such as number of dynamite blasts, number of mangrove seedlings planted, and the villagers have also learned how to do basic line and belt transects on coral reefs. Data on fishing effort and fish catch are more difficult to obtain (and less accurate). Continued involvement of District and Central Government will be necessary to sustain key monitoring and enforcement functions.

Socioeconomic Aspects

As previously mentioned, the region's general environmental awareness has increased with activities of the Program. Participating villagers, members of neighboring villages, and district government staff are now more knowledgeable of basic coastal ecology and the key issues that can be dealt with through collective action. This awareness has been the impetus for at least one neighboring village to begin the action planning process on its own after seeing the progress made by other villages.¹⁶ The assessment team both observed and heard from various stakeholders of today's much higher level of overall cooperation and trust between villages and with district government officials.

The Program has focused much of its community work on increasing the number of women involved in the action planning and village-level decision-making process. The assessment team heard from several women who indicate increased income opportunities as a result of training provided to women on such activities as seaweed cultivation and organic vegetable farming.

¹⁵ Makoloweka., S. Personal communication, 2002.

¹⁶ Torell, et al., 2000.

Participants of a three-day workshop in August 2000 confirmed that women have become more independent as a result of these developments, are better able to provide for their families, and have become much more integrated into village decision-making.¹⁷ One workshop participant was quoted as saying: “When I came to Tongoni as a young primary school teacher, things were very different. Women were only allowed to go outside their houses with permission from their husbands and therefore they stayed inside the house most of the time. As you can see, things have changed greatly. Now even the chair of the Environmental Committee is a woman.”¹⁸

Other reported socioeconomic outcomes include:

- Increased self-dependence and confidence in the ability to implement actions
- Increased capacity to influence decisions on resource use and solve coastal issues
- More equal resource ownership
- Increased village security as a result of enforcement training and equipment
- Increased confidence and transparency in identifying wrongdoers among villagers.¹⁹

Although the overall fish catch has increased in the region, fishers’ incomes have declined by almost 30 percent in real terms between 1996 and 2000.²⁰ This reflects a reported 20 percent decline in the price of fish during the same period. Nevertheless, it is the perception among villagers and district officials that the overall nutritional and educational status of the region has increased in recent years. Greater fish catch is reportedly responsible for fewer malnourished people. Higher educational standards are also reported due to greater income and the fact that the seine fishery has been made illegal. The seine fishery formerly employed large numbers of school age children, and its demise has resulted in more children attending school.²¹

Governance Aspects

Clearly, the Program has achieved a new level of capacity by villagers to undertake various resource management actions. Capabilities in issue identification and assessment, action planning, implementation, monitoring, and enforcement have greatly empowered local communities and expanded their involvement in natural resources management. They have learned many valuable problem identification and solving skills that can be applied to issues unrelated to NRM. One interviewee reported that he now uses action-planning techniques to help plan his own family’s affairs. Moreover, villagers generally feel that district officials consult

¹⁷ Torell, et al., 2000.

¹⁸ Torell, et al., 2000.

¹⁹ Torell, et al., 2000.

²⁰ Torell, et al., 2000.

²¹ Torell, et al., 2000.

with them more frequently and meaningfully on topics of importance to local communities, and that the foundation for a strong partnership for co-management of the resource has been built.

One also gets the impression that District Government officials have benefited by the greater trust and cooperation that has developed during the years of the Program. Although there is still villager complaints regarding the heavy-handed role sometimes played by Central Government in making land-used decisions that affect local communities, villagers appeared to show much greater deference to District Officials who have invested considerable time in consensus-building processes with the villagers. Although there is nothing to quantify this assertion, the author was struck by an apparent greater job satisfaction (and pride of ownership) among District Officials as a result of having participated in the Program.

3.3 Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership: Development of District ICM Action Plans

In 2000, the TCMP neared completion of a four-year consensus-building process to develop the Tanzania National Coastal Management Strategy. As a means of implementing the National Strategy, it was decided to field-test a set of guidelines for the development of District ICM Action Plans in two districts selected as pilot sites. The two districts chosen were Pangani (a district well experienced in the action planning process as participants in the Tanga Program), and Bagamoyo (a district with no formal experience in ICM or village-level action planning).

The application of the guidelines and the completion of the two draft District Action Plans for Pangani and Bagamoyo offer many insights into the application of action planning at the district and sub-district levels in Tanzania. As of this date, the two draft plans have undergone review and await final revision and approval prior to the start of implementation. Upon approval, the respective District Governments will fund 75 percent and the TCMP 25 percent of implementation costs respectively.

The selection of the two pilot districts and the implementation of the action planning processes were carried out under careful criteria and guidelines. These criteria and guidelines are described in “Guidelines for District ICM Action Planning,” prepared by the Core Working Group of TCMP (TCMP, 2002). The guidelines suggest four principal characteristics for action planning:

- Empowering those involved to plan and implement actions themselves;
- Implementing a limited number of specific actions to address well defined local problems;
- Monitoring the impacts of the actions taken; and
- Continuous review of progress and effectiveness—if necessary leading to adaptation.²²

For Pagani District, 24 management issues were identified and four selected as the priority issues upon which to base the first draft of the District Action Plan.²³ The four priority issues selected

²² Torell, 2001.

include: low fish catches; reduced mangrove vegetation cover; increased beach pollution from human excreta and coconut husks; and increasing rate of excavation of stone along Boza escarpment, German graves, and other historical sites.²⁴ For Bagamoyo District, 9 management issues were identified and assessed and four selected as priority issues, including: conflicts between shrimp trawlers and artisanal fishers; destructive fishing practices; illegal and uncontrolled cutting of mangroves; and conflicts on the use of beach areas.²⁵

A workshop conducted in October 2001 set out to allow those who had participated in the two action planning processes to reflect on their experience. Results from the workshop are reported in “Reflection on the first year of district action planning” (Torell, 2001), and should be consulted by those interested in conducting similar action planning processes at the district and sub-district levels in Tanzania and elsewhere.

3.4 Mafia Island Marine Park

The development and implementation of the Mafia Island Marine Park represents an important milestone for coastal and marine conservation efforts in Tanzania. The idea for the Park stems back to the 1960s with preliminary field assessments along the coast and recommendations for creating a series of marine parks, reserves, and sanctuaries. Although eight small reserves and sanctuaries were established under Fisheries Regulations of 1975, they resulted in little more than “paper parks” due to the lack of human and financial resources for enforcement and virtually no community involvement.²⁶ The designation of parks and reserves did little to curtail dynamite and other destructive fishing techniques within their boundaries.

In 1991, following a survey of the Tanzanian coast which provided valuable baseline information, the Principal Secretary of the Ministry of Tourism, Natural Resources, and the Environment appointed a Steering Committee to oversee development of the Mafia Island Marine Park. The Steering Committee was comprised of representatives of key ministries, academic institutions, and international NGOs. In the same year, an FAO legal team developed the legal framework for the Marine Parks and Reserves Act and Regulations. A major workshop was held in October 1991 to initiate a collaborative and participatory planning process with representatives of the 11 villages to be involved in the Mafia Island Marine Park. In 1992, World Wildlife Fund (WWF-UK) provided technical and financial support for development of the Park. Following approval of the Marine Parks and Reserves Act No. 29 of 1994, the National Assembly established the Mafia Island Marine Park in April 1995 by Resolution.²⁷

Working with the 11 villages located within Park boundaries, and specifically with Village Liaison Committees established to enhance community planning and dialogue, Park officials and external advisors facilitated completion of the Park’s first General Management Plan approved

²³ Pangani District Council, 2002.

²⁴ Pangani District Council, 2002.

²⁵ Bagamoyo District Council, 2002.

²⁶ Mafia Island Marine Park, 2000.

²⁷ Mafia Island Marine Park, 2000.

by the Board of Trustees in October 2000. The planning process involved the key steps of a participatory CBNRM process: Participatory Rapid Assessment (PRA); issue identification, assessment, and prioritization; implementation of demonstration “early actions”; and attention to both conservation and socioeconomic goals identified by the communities themselves. The General Management Plan establishes three types of marine use-zones within park boundary, and further provides the guiding principles and management strategies for a variety of conservation and community development objectives.²⁸ It provides details on the zoning scheme, prohibited uses, and other uses that are permissible but regulated. Park staff and stakeholders are today moving forward to develop Park Regulations to complement the General Management Plan.²⁹

The Assessment Team was unable to visit Mafia Island and conduct interviews during this CBNRM assessment, but anecdotal evidence suggests this to be a rich and rewarding case study in coastal and marine CBNRM for Tanzania. Park staff participates in annual TCMP self-assessment workshops, reporting regularly on progress, opportunities, and challenges for the Park. The Park has made notable success on a number of challenges, including: implementation of Local Resident User Certificates (LRUC) aimed at self enforcement; installation of demarcation buoys; establishment of a User Fee System; marine enforcement patrols in concert with District Government; construction of Park Headquarters, staff housing, and Village Liaison Committee offices; entrance and fishing permit fees; studies and demonstrations of alternative income and resource use strategies; community training and environmental education; and much more.³⁰ And although there are several remaining challenges (especially financial sustainability for the Park, and the introduction of alternative, environment friendly resource use techniques), the Mafia Island Marine Park represents an important model of Central Government and local community co-management of important coastal and marine resources.

3.5 Summary of Findings from Other Sites Visited by the Assessment Team

The following additional cases selected for review and field visits were identified as successful activities, and represent a sampling of what is possible within the current CBNRM policy environment. These summaries are intended to highlight the principal observations and findings based on a short visit to the area and interviews with key members of the village NRM committees or other local community-based organizations. Detailed field reports from visits to these sites can be found in Annex E. An analysis of the overall results follows the summary descriptions for each site.

***Name of Activity:* Ngarambe Natural Resource Management**

Location Visited: Rufiji District, on the eastern edge of the Selous Game Reserve

Date started: 1997

External funding/donor: WWF, GTZ, WD

²⁸ Mafia Island Marine Park, 2000.

²⁹ Hisluck & Kazimoto, 2001.

³⁰ Hisluck, 2000.

Summary Description: In 1995, GTZ began a sensitization campaign to raise awareness of a program that would enable villages around Selous Game Reserve to benefit from wildlife and reduce poaching. The GTZ program covers some fifty villages around the reserve. WWF and GTZ are collaborating in two villages bordering the eastern sector of Selous Game Reserve. The African Development Bank is supporting similar activities in districts bordering the western part of the reserve. The experiences from these activities are being used by Wildlife Department to craft national guidelines for Wildlife Management Areas.

Ngarambe village, population of 2,500 people, covers 22,579 hectares, including rich agricultural flood plain and forested uplands. Village livelihoods are based on farming, temporary labor in Selous Reserve; and sale of plaited mats to tourists and hunters. The men traditionally hunted wildlife for meat, and the Reserve management viewed the village as a poacher village prior to the project. In exchange for village agreement to set aside lands for wildlife management and forest, the project facilitates the granting of village land titles.

Powers Devolved to Community: Patrol area and apprehend poachers; shoot, butcher and sell selected species (quota) for local consumption; sell licenses to ‘resident hunters’ , draft bylaws, set prices for licenses and fines, keep funds raised from selling licenses and fines in a natural resources bank account, use those funds as decided by village assembly.

Powers Retained by State: Approve bylaws, Set quota (determine which species and how many of each can be killed each year), monitor wildlife populations,

Benefits to Community: Legal access to meat “for the pot”; small fund generated from sale of hunting licenses is used for allowance and rations for game scouts and for local projects – e.g., bricks for school buildings, materials for new village government building (WWF contributed construction materials like cement, roofing sheets), building for grain mill (Selous Game Reserve management gave mill).

Key Results: Poaching by villagers stopped, wildlife populations stable, game scouts also protecting forest against poachers, improved trust between village and Selous Game Reserve staff

Conditions for Success: All villagers understand the roles and responsibilities of village government, village assembly and the Community Natural Resources Committee. Village assembly plays active role in directing local government. Transparent accounting for funds creates trust and maintains interest of all villagers. Experience with good governance in NRM spills over into improved village governance.

Lessons Learned:

- Take advantage of local government reform.
- Train villagers in bookkeeping, transparent management of funds, roles & responsibilities of village government, and patrolling.
- Use participatory land use planning to build broad village buy-in, identify protected zones & agricultural zones, and initiate empowerment process.
- Improve tenure security under new Land Act.

Other Issues:

- Lack of transparency in district government regarding use of the 25% revenues given to district government by the Wildlife Division.
- Wildlife damage crops but village receives no compensation for this damage.

Name of Activity: JUKUMU Society

Location Visited: Dhuthumi Village, Morogoro District *Date Started:* 1996

Summary Description: In 1996, 19 villages, representing approximately 65,000 people, in the Gonabis GCA, located directly north of the reserve and incorporated into one of the SGR tourist hunting blocks, joined to administer a wildlife conservation-oriented buffer zone, designating a total of 750km² as a communal wildlife management area. This common area, borders Selous Game Reserve in the south, Mikumi National Park in the southwest and is surrounded in the west and northwest by the Uluguru Mountains. The area possesses abundant wildlife resources such as wildebeest, buffalo, crocodile, impala, zebra, giraffe, warthog and waterbuck among others. The villagers have collectively created an NGO known as JUKUMU (Jumuiya ya Kuhifadhi Mazingira Ukutu), which is charged with running their buffer area. The organization is responsible for owning firearms, organizing meat sales and transporting the meat to the market, and signing contracts with hunters.

Powers Devolved to Community:

- Acquired permits to harvest crocodiles
- Ability to collaborate with District Game scouts and Selous Game Reserve staff on anti-poaching activities.

Powers Retained by the State:

- Setting quotas for utilization
- Agreements with safari hunting companies

Benefits to the Community:

- Villagers are allowed to harvest a quota of game for their own consumption
- Community receives revenue from concession lease

Other key results: Relationship with central and district government improved

Conditions for success: A forum for consensus building, joint decision making, conflict resolution, and organizing meat sales created

Other Lessons Learned:

- Value in having an external facilitation
- Organized a forum for consensus building

Other Issues:

- Community obtained a trophy dealers license to market game outside of the project villages however failed to renew the license because they did not show a profit.

- Opportunities for enhancing their capacity are limited.

Name of Activity: Mgori Forest—Land Management Programme (LAMP)

Location Visited: Singida District

Date started: 1995

External funding/donor: Swedish SIDA

Summary Description: Mgori Forest covers 400 km² in the wildlife corridor to the the Swaza swaza Game Reserve in neighboring Hanang District. LAMP project assisted five villages (Pohama, Ngimu, Unyampana, Mughunga and Nduamghanga—each with approximately 250 households, in two different wards) to assert their control over Mgori Forest in Singida District after the Forest Department attempted to gazette it as a national forest reserve.

Powers Devolved to Community: Patrol forest and apprehend poachers, fine poachers; draft and enforce bylaws; draft forest management plans, set fines, keep funds raised from fines in a natural resources bank account, use those funds as decided by village assembly

Powers Retained by State: Approve by-laws and forest management plans, survey wildlife, survey forest, determine whether village can harvest timber or wildlife

Benefits to Community: Small community fund (around 100,000 shillings; some villages not using it since so small, others using for operating costs or contributing to school building construction); and community access to subsistence items from forest (medicines, firewood, honey).

Key Results:

- District government ceased issuing permits for hunting and timber cutting.
- Poaching of forest products has been reduced.
- Forest fires stopped.
- Forest regeneration is evident to the eye.

Conditions for Success: Neighboring villages accept legitimacy of village forest guards to apprehend and fine poachers.

Lessons Learned: Train villagers in bookkeeping, transparent management of funds, roles & responsibilities of village government, and patrolling.

Other Issues:

- Mgori Forest is not yet formally registered/gazetted although all the pre-registration steps have been completed.
- Villages have not received equipment (boots, etc) promised by District Government.
- Villagers feel they are contributing free labor to the forest department, and are only willing to do this with expectation that soon they will allowed to harvest timber and wildlife.
- Villagers feel they need guns to be able to confront poachers.

Name of Activity: MBOMIPA

Location Visited: Tungamalenga village, Iringa District

Date started: 1998 (following on REMP ICDP project begun in 1993)

External funding/donor: DFID

Summary Description: MBOMIPA's current purpose is "to improve the livelihoods of people in the proposed Lunda-Mkwambi Wildlife Management Area (LMWMA) by establishing sustainable resource management under community authority and responsibility in Pawaga and Idodi divisions" of Iringa District. MBOMIPA has developed pilot WMAs in 19 villages located in southern part of the Lunda-Mkwambi Game Control Area (LMGCA) , an area of 4,000 km², on southeastern edge of Ruaha National Park. It is in a semi-arid zone dominated by miombo woodland including *Acacia*, *Commiphora*, *Combretum* and *Brachystegia* species. The population of 40,000 people includes Hehe and other Bantu speaking people, some of whom were resettled outside Ruaha National Park following its creation in 1964, as well as non Bantu speaking pastoralists like the Maasai and Barabaig.

Powers Devolved to Community: Patrol area and apprehend poachers; shoot, butcher and sell selected species (quota) for local consumption and/or sell licenses to 'resident hunters' , draft bylaws, set prices for licenses and fines, keep funds raised from selling licenses and fines in a natural resources bank account, use those funds as decided by village assembly.

Powers Retained by State: Approve bylaws, Set quota (determine which species and how many of each can be killed each year), monitor wildlife populations.



Idodi Secondary School students in front of the unfinished dormitory being constructed through funds accruing from wildlife utilization in the MBOMIPA project area.

Benefits to Community: Use funds for local development projects such as school buildings. Income from wildlife tripled between 1996 and 1999 (e.g., 1 million shillings in Tungamalenga village).

Key Results: Poaching reduced, wildlife populations stable, increased off-take recommended for five species based on aerial monitoring done in the wet and dry seasons since 1994.

Conditions for Success:

- All villagers understand the roles and responsibilities of village government, village assembly and the Natural Resources Committee. Village assembly makes key decisions about natural resources management and how to funds in their bank account.
- Transparent accounting for funds creates trust and maintains interest of all villagers.
- Experience with good governance in NRM spills over into improved village governance and increased participation in public works and self reliance.

Lessons Learned:

- Train villagers in bookkeeping, transparent management of funds, roles and responsibilities of village government, and patrolling.
- Use participatory land use planning to build broad village buy-in, identify protected zones and agricultural zones, and initiate empowerment process.
- Adapt to changing circumstances as activity evolves.
- Use cross-site visits to enable villagers to learn from each other's experiences.
- Involve women.

Other Issues: Could quadruple their income if were allowed to sell licenses to international tourist hunters.

Name of Activity: TanzaKesho

Location Visited: Mbozi District

Date started: 1999

External funding/donor: UNDP

Summary Description: The Tanzakesho Programme, under UNDP's Capacity 21 program, *aims at enhancing capacity for participatory planning, management and sustainable development at local levels (District, Ward and Villages)*. The program brings together different sectors and communities in planning processes, whilst giving power and empowering communities to plan, marshal resources and implement programs that address their concerns (health, education, poverty, transport, natural resources etc) in holistic ways.

Powers Devolved to Community: problem assessment, planning and implementation

Powers Retained by State: Incorporate village-generated plans into district plan along with other input, determine which plans will receive district funding (including district budget and donor funding to district for this project).

Benefits to Community: Empowerment and motivation to undertake small development projects with technical advice from district extension workers.

Key Results: School buildings renovated, springs protected, forests put under protection, drug use reduced, improved family welfare, enhanced gender equality; increased self-reliance and

organization to plan and implement local projects; District Council decided to expand the program to two more divisions, using district funds.



The Mbozi Mission village expanded conservation of natural forests for the protection of springs as part of their implementation of plans derived from the TanzaKesho PRA exercise.

Conditions for Success:

- Responsive and accountable district government
- Good communication up and down government hierarchy
- Planning department interested in incorporating village plans into district plans
- Improved coordination between district sectoral teams to deliver assistance in integrated development.

Lessons Learned:

- Use intensive 2 week PRA to energize villagers and assist them to assess their own problems and come up with concrete plans to address them, assign responsibilities and timeframes, etc.
- Train villagers in bookkeeping, transparent management of funds, roles & responsibilities of village government.
- Use study tours to enable villagers to exchange experiences and innovations.
- Donors should deliver support through district government structure instead of creating parallel project structure.
- Build district government capacity to use “core team approach” to achieve integrated rural development that meets village needs at increased efficiency.
- Use integrated multi-sectoral approach to fit with management problems faced by village government. Base project design on survey of best practices. Train district core team in PRA, teambuilding, etc.

Other Issues:

- Not all district governments are accountable and transparent.
- Not all district governments have the political will and capacity to use this approach.

Name of Activity: Cullman & Hurt Community Wildlife Project

Location Visited: Arkaria, Lepurko and Imairet (Monduli District)

Date Started: 1990

Summary Description: The Cullman & Hurt project was initiated by Joseph Cullman, a US businessman and philanthropist, and Robin Hurt Safaris Ltd., a private hunting company. The project aims to create a sense of stewardship and ownership in rural communities for wildlife and other resources in areas where they have traditionally hunted and controlled in spite of unclear land tenure. The goal is to ensure that the 23 villages associated with Robin Hurt Safaris' hunting blocks benefit from tourism hunting that occurs on land that they consider theirs. The project finances local development with hunting fees, and organizes anti-poaching patrols and educational activities. The project is successful because it provides direct benefits for local people, as well as a sense of responsibility and control.

Powers Devolved to Community: Communities decide how revenues from hunting should be used.

Powers Retained by the State/private sector:

- Hunting quotas are set by the Wildlife Division, and most hunting fees go to the central government.
- Company controls and manages bank account on behalf of local community.

Benefits to the Community: From 1991 to 2001 a total of 119 projects were funded in 23 villages. Funds helped build school facilities (47), health facilities (16) and water projects (28), as well as providing food and water during several severe droughts and food shortages.

Other key results: Anti-poaching activities have involved local communities and reduced poaching, and public awareness about conservation and its benefits has increased.

Conditions for success:

- The project has developed reliable and sustainable revenues for communities through surcharges on hunting.
- Local communities decide together in open meetings how they would like the fees generated from the hunting to be used.
- Actual management of the funds is done by Hurt Safaris to ensure that the funds are used accountably
- Villages often provide labor to help with construction projects.

Other Lessons Learned:

- The project depends entirely on revenues from foreign sport hunters.
- Local governance and financial management skills should be developed to increase local ownership and control.
- Longer term agreements increase the private sectors' willingness to invest in an area, especially for infrastructure and support to local communities.
- More systematic monitoring of game stocks and hunting off take should be established.

Other Issues:

- Anti-poaching and educational activities depend largely on outside donations, raised by Cullman and Hurt.
- Communities do not have clear, legal title to their lands, which creates fears over their ability to control and protect the resources they depend on.
- Private donations and grants are used to maintain anti-poaching efforts and educational programs, which limits the project's sustainability.
- The overall size and complexity of the ecosystem makes establishment of a reliable monitoring program extremely difficult at the community level.

Name of Activity: Robanda Community—Private Tour Operator Partnership

Location Visited: Ikoma-Robanda, Serengeti District, West of SNP

Date Started: 1993

Summary Description: The Robanda people were traditionally hunters and pastoralists when the Serengeti National Park was established. Creation of the park created considerable animosity among the local people who relied on the area for grazing, hunting, firewood collection, and other traditional uses. Poaching was once very common, but there is now a general awareness within the community that wildlife have a greater value through tourism and commercial sport hunting.

Powers Devolved to Community:

- Village officials directly negotiated several agreements with tour operators to use village land.
- Village officials decide how the revenues are used to assist the community.

Powers Retained by the State: Government allocates subsistence hunting quotas to the village each year.

Benefits to the Community: The community has benefited through improved primary schools, health services, water projects, and general food security. Overall, the village is distinct from other communities in that many of the houses and shops are constructed of cement with metal roofs, rather than the more common traditional mud and dung structures with thatch roofs.

Other key results: Poaching around the village has declined as people realize the value of wildlife for tourism and commercial hunting.

Conditions for success:

- Robanda is located near the border of the SNP, with good access roads, so its geographic position attracts private tour companies.
- The village was able to negotiate directly with private tour companies to receive a fee for the private commercial use of village lands and water.
- The village was able to decide how to use the revenues to benefit the overall community.

- Physical infrastructure, including bore holes and a grain mill, provide some revenue for their regular maintenance.

Other Lessons Learned:

- Some degree of outside facilitation would help Robanda negotiate commercial arrangements with private operators, and help them develop a longer term village development and land use plan.
- Support from an outside organization could help local officials and the community to improve their governance systems and management skills.
- A clear demarcation of the village land would avoid confusion and help them patrol the area more effectively.

Other Issues:

- The Robanda Village Council manages all revenues with limited input from the broader community. Increased and more formal dialogue would increase the transparency of how funds are used, and create greater awareness within the village of the benefits associated with the area's wildlife and other natural resources.
- Community meetings need to be held more frequently and regularly to increase village participation.
- People in Robanda realize the value of their wildlife and the hunting quotas they receive for subsistence use. They would like to be able to sell their quotas for village use to commercial hunters in order to have greater overall revenues.
- A wildlife monitoring program would benefit the community, however the magnitude of the ecosystem and the mobility of the animals make effective monitoring a challenge that requires the Wildlife Division and TANAPA to assist.

***Name of Activity:* Manyara Trustland - Tanzania Conservation Land Trust (TCLT)—**
conservation and pastoral grazing

Location Visited: Manyara Trustland Headquarters, Monduli District

Date Started: July 2000—title to ranch transferred to TCLT

Summary Description: The Manyara Trust Lands, consists of approximately 45,000 acres and occupies a critical location in the northern portion of the Kwa Kuchinja wildlife migration corridor situated between Tarangire and Lake Manyara National Parks in northeast Tanzania. The Manyara Trust Land is adjacent to the main tourist route to Ngorogoro Conservation Area and Serengeti National Park, on which approximately 100,000 tourists per year pass.

Powers Devolved to Community:

- Creation of Tanzania Conservation Land Trust – legal constitution through a land trust deed recognized by central government
- Joint management of ranch—power to determine access and use of resources on ranch land (dams, bore holes, water tanks, grazing areas, building materials) devolved to community through the Trust

Powers Retained by the State: Control over the wildlife on the land

Benefits to the Community:

- Joint management of ranch – power to determine access and use of resources on ranch land (dams, bore holes, water tanks, grazing areas, building materials)
- Opportunity to develop wildlife related tourism through community-private sector joint venture relationships
- Potential for other income generating projects on land that preserves the integrity of one of the key wildlife corridor and reserve fodder pastoral use area
- Social welfare improvement for pastoral children – improvement and renovation of primary school facility
- Seasonal access to water through dams, bore holes, water tanks, maintained by ranch

Other key results:

- Organization and governance at the village level was facilitated by the creation of the TCLT through the steering committee
- Awareness campaign by TCLT members is targeting communities in the surrounding areas not involved in the TCLT
- Community game scouts trained to patrol and monitor resource use and wildlife movements
- Increased collaboration between communities and government authorities (TANAPA, WD, District Council)
- Developed interim operation plan and management zone concept plan

Conditions for success:

- Organized themselves to take advantage of a timely political opportunity
- Steering committee allowed people to organize and take control over the ranch
- Presence of an external facilitator (AWF and MAA)
- Access over use of resources
- Joint land use planning

Other Lessons Learned:

- Value in having external facilitation
- Seeking government support for innovative solutions
- Organize a forum for consensus building
- Control over Use through a transparent steering committee

Other Issues: Manyara Ranch TCLT provides for natural resource conservation and traditional pastoral land use practices that potentially exclude agricultural communities.

4. Results, Lessons Learned, and Conditions for Success in CBNRM

In a recent commentary, a leading architect of Community-Based Conservation in Southern Africa, Marshall Murphree, characterized the broad picture of CBC in Africa as “one where successes stand as islands in a sea of initiatives where performance rarely matches promise and is sometimes abysmal.”³¹ This report highlights the positive experiences from several “islands” amid the many initiatives in Tanzania. CBC is not new in Tanzania, as there are a number of localized initiatives with more than a decade of experience. However, in many respects CBC is still at an early stage in Tanzania, and far from realizing its full potential to contribute to the country’s economic development and resource conservation objectives.

As will be apparent from the cases documented in this assessment, the experiences gained in a growing number of pilot activities can be scaled up and more widely replicated. Such an expansion will nevertheless require the Government of Tanzania and its partners to address a number of constraints and to move forward more vigorously to devolve political and economic power, and to implement provisions in new policies that are consistent with CBNRM. In the process, CBNRM can provide a mechanism to support democratic reforms and an expansion of natural resource-based enterprises as a foundation for revitalizing rural development, while simultaneously reducing environmental degradation and contributing to the achievement of biodiversity conservation goals.

Despite the many serious and continuing threats to the conservation and sustainable use of natural resources in Tanzania, and the numerous examples of degradation and declining productivity of Tanzania’s rich heritage of wildlife, fisheries, forests, pastures, water, soil and other renewable natural resources, this assessment reveals that there are cases where local communities have been mobilized and are now sufficiently well organized and supported to slow, halt and even reverse environmental degradation. Moreover, these cases demonstrate that CBNRM is an economically attractive land use option. In many areas of Tanzania, traditional agriculture or livestock-raising may not generate the most favorable economic returns. It is possible to increase the productivity and economic returns to local communities from forests, fisheries, wildlife and other natural resources. However, communities will not have an incentive to invest in improved management practices unless they directly benefit from these investments. (see text box on the Mwada Conservation Business Venture).

A growing number of communities understand the linkages between local empowerment to control unsustainable use of natural resources, adoption of techniques to improve the management and conservation of those resources, and increased security of local livelihoods and improved socio-economic well-being. The critical importance of awareness-raising, participatory approaches to conservation and sustained efforts at building local level capacity to improve the

³¹ See Prof. M. W. Murphree, *Community-Based Conservation: Old Ways, New Myths and Enduring Challenges*. Key Address for Theme no. 3, Conference on African Wildlife Management in the New Millennium, College of African Wildlife Management, Mweka, Tanzania, 13-15 December 2000.

management of natural resources is being reflected in recent CBNRM initiatives. Moreover, these initiatives are also recognizing the value of strengthening linkages with efforts that support improved governance, enterprise development and the legal empowerment of communities to organize and manage local economic development activities.

The assessment began by seeking local expert opinion on “successful” CBNRM initiatives. While we did not gather data on the actual extent of area under CBNRM projects or the number of projects, the search for successful initiatives revealed that the majority of ongoing CBNRM activities are tied to donor-funded pilot projects. The fact that the cases reviewed in this

The Case of the Mwada Conservation Business Venture

In March 2002, USAID/Tanzania provided an encouraging report on the Mwada Conservation Business Venture (CBV). The Kibo Safari /Mwada agreement was concluded in May 2001. Before the negotiations, the parties had an informal agreement whereby Kibo Safaris used village land for mobile campsite. Under the CBV, Kibo safari had agreed to pay \$10 per bed night in return for the use of the land. The agreement was signed by the Village Chairman on behalf of Mwada village and Director of Kibo Safari on behalf of the company. The negotiation process was long, as it began in 2000.

AWF played a major role in brokering the Mwada and Kibo Safari Limited agreement. The village was advised on the business potential of the area, the importance of preserving the natural resources and environment, and was given working examples of similar deals in Tanzania and Kenya where communities benefit. With AWF assistance, the village managed to convince Kibo Safaris to double the bed night fees from \$10 to \$20 per night. The extra \$10 is treated as conservation fees, payable only if the conservation area has been properly managed and conserved by putting a ban on grazing, cultivation, human settlement and cutting trees in the designated area.

Kibo Safari also benefited from the interventions and services of AWF, as the village came to appreciate the importance of reaching a formal agreement with the company and the villagers were more organized as a result of training offered by AWF. AWF provided training to Mwada villagers on business management, gender issues, and contract negotiations. The villagers have requested further training on financial management, governance and institutional development. AWF also visited the parties separately prior to the negotiations to examine and understand the needs of each party. Then a meeting between the village council and the company was convened, with AWF and the District Council official as invited observers, and they intervened only on matters that needed clarification.

Afterwards, AWF drafted an agreement based on the discussions. The village government presented and explained the draft to the village assembly meeting. After the village assembly agreed with the draft, another meeting between the two parties was convened to finalize the discussions. The village council is comprised of a chairman and about twenty members, and ¼ of the members are women. The Village Assembly is the highest organ in the village structure, and it is the one that elects the Village Council. The Village Assembly consists of all residents who have attained the age of eighteen.

The Mwada/Kibo agreement is a significant achievement because the conservation area was being overrun by farmers, charcoal makers and pastoralists. This was causing the disappearance of wild life in the area. The agreement will therefore help protect the area, which is adjacent to Tarangire National Park, and will also provide villagers with tangible economic benefits. It is hoped that in the future, more wildlife will be attracted back to the area. The Mwada/Kibo Safari deal can be regarded as an interim agreement while waiting for the supporting legislation on WMA to take effect. Mwada village together with the three other villages of Minjingu, Vilima Vitatu, and Sangaiwe has been proposed as potential Wildlife Management Areas.

assessment are largely driven by projects and have not yet been spontaneously and widely replicated indicates that a favorable “enabling environment” for CBNRM has not yet been well established in Tanzania. The report includes a number of reflections about the “conditions for success” that appear to be necessary to trigger successful CBNRM initiatives.

As the record shows from a number of CBNRM activities that have been supported over the past 10-15 years in Tanzania and other African countries with valuable wildlife and forest resources, these activities are not likely to be sustainable unless there is democratic reform and devolution of power to accompany the application of technical “best practices” and lessons learned. Although the starting point for many CBNRM activities has been an emphasis on increased community participation in the protection and conservation or “stewardship” of natural resources, this assessment has revealed that community-based management is not likely to succeed if NRM planning and field activities are not well integrated into activities that strengthen local level governance and generate tangible social, economic and financial benefits. Investments in resource management need to lead to improvements in socio-economic well-being, with transparent and accountable provisions for equitable benefit sharing at the local level.

4.1 General Findings on Best Practices

The overall results from all of the sites visited, together with key findings and lessons learned from additional case studies in Tanzania, the available literature on CBNRM, and facilitated discussions with USAID/Tanzania SO2 partner NGOs during the SOT retreat suggest the following general findings. In keeping with appreciative inquiry methodology, the results described below are aggregated examples of successful results from some (not all) cases. Annex F provides a summary of key observations from selected sites, in the three critical areas of CBNRM activities: devolution of powers, economic benefits, and improved environmental management. A number of important “best practices” associated with these results are also highlighted in the table and in the following section.

Environmental Management and Biophysical Aspects

Results: CBNRM has produced significant biophysical results at the site level. Fish and wildlife populations have stabilized or increased. Forests are regenerating. Healthy environments are being restored by protection of reefs, springs and forests. These results have accrued through the application of appropriate techniques in land use management overseen by effective local government acting in response to economic and social incentives.

Conditions for Success

- Community is willing to invest in management measures.
- Community has ownership of their resources.
- Community is empowered to make key decisions affecting resource regeneration.
- Community uses effective approaches and technologies to ensure resource recovery.
- Community has bylaws and effectively uses them to manage sustainable offtake.

- Central government regularly provides communities and district government with biophysical information derived from monitoring populations/ecosystems at larger scale.
- Government agencies provide consistent support to communities.

Lessons learned for CBNRM design and implementation

- Start small to demonstrate early success and support action by other communities.
- Monitor against a baseline using simple indicators.
- Use cross-site visits and joint meetings to exchange information among communities and upward to district and national levels.
- Identify and address root causes for resource degradation in participatory manner.
- Use participatory land/sea use planning, such as PRA, to build broad village buy-in, identify protected zones, and agricultural zones, and initiate empowerment process.
- Ensure that community has proper tools to manage resource and enforce rules.
- Raise awareness of environmental issues among communities and district governments.
- Advocate for enabling legislation.
- Train national and district government staff in necessary skills and appropriate techniques, including participatory problem analysis and other techniques that require attitudinal changes
- Develop trust between district government and local communities.
- Involve all sectors of community—including all user groups, women, and youth.
- Place physical markers around borders and use signs to encourage recognition of community control and enhance pride.

Socio-Economic and Financial Aspects

Results: CBNRM activities are generating economic and social benefits. Expectations for higher economic benefits in the future have been sufficient incentives to reduce current offtakes. With funds generated from natural resources, and as a result of village planning exercises, funds from CBNRM activities have been contributed toward the full cost of construction of schools, schoolteachers' houses, clinics and other public buildings. The small funds from CBNRM activities have been used to leverage larger funds and materials from government or donors as well as contributed to reducing local contributions for public projects normally required from individual households. In cases where adequate funds are being generated, scholarships for secondary and university students are being funded from wildlife earnings. Social cohesion has increased. Volunteerism has increased, particularly for game scouts, coast guards, forest guards who are expecting to be paid in the future. Gender equity has been improved. Subsistence

benefits (medicines, water, firewood, building materials, craft materials, etc) have stabilized or improved with more sustainable harvesting.

Conditions for Success

- Benefits from CBNRM are incentives to change behavior.
- CBNRM income is used to improve social services
- CBNRM implementation builds community cohesion.
- CBNRM subsistence benefits and income increases to meet expectations during initial period of harvesting restraint.
- Income is used in ways that build village social cohesion.

Lessons learned for CBNRM design and implementation

- Negotiate agreements with private sector that include safety clauses, long-term investment, and good benefits for communities.
- Push to gain access to most profitable resources (international tourist hunters, timber, hotels).
- Advocate for policy reform to support greater economic benefits to communities.
- Train villagers in bookkeeping, record keeping, and financial planning skills.
- Ensure that funds are managed transparently.
- Use open meetings to decide how funds will be spent.
- Use external facilitation when there is significant power differences between village and other stakeholders.
- Seek government support for innovative solutions.
- District and national government and donors need to provide consistent adequate support, adapting support to take advantage of possibilities for increasing community benefits.
- Evaluate tax benefit/incentives for village enterprises during start-up phase.
- Build capacity to enter joint ventures with private sector.

Governance and Institutional Aspects

Results: CBNRM activities have promoted progress in democratization and good governance at the village level. Village assemblies are holding regular meetings where communities make collective decisions about budget allocation and review expenditures. Corrupt local leaders have

been removed, and expectations for government performance have risen. More youth and women are participating in village government.

Conditions for Success

- Regular and active village assembly meetings
- Self-reliance in decision-making and adaptive planning
- Financial transparency encourages transparency in other matters under village government.

Lessons learned for CBNRM design and implementation

- Use financial management as a strong entry point for improving governance.
- Build accountability, transparency and group problem solving skills through training in roles, rules and responsibilities of committee members, village council, village assembly, ward council and district council.
- Encourage village assembly to be key institution for decision-making.
- Use PRA and other means to enable village to draw up village action plans that have official status.
- Use CBNRM to build constituency for national policy change.
- Take advantage of local government reforms to empower villages to make key decisions, make and enforce by-laws.
- Develop good cross-scale accountability (upward as well as downward) to ensure good governance at all scales necessary to maintain the resource.
- Train communities in conflict resolution and use of courts as mediation tools that can represent their interests when dealing with more powerful non-village parties.

4.2 Opportunities and Prospects

The assessment began by deliberating searching out some of the better known examples of “successful” CBNRM initiatives. The fact that the cases reviewed in this assessment are largely driven by projects and have not yet been spontaneously and widely replicated indicates that a favorable “enabling environment” for CBNRM has not yet been well established in Tanzania. The report includes a number insights about the “conditions for success” that appear to be necessary to trigger successful CBNRM initiatives.

Although the starting point for many CBNRM activities has been an emphasis on increased community participation in the protection and conservation or “stewardship” of natural resources, this assessment has revealed that community-based management is not likely to succeed if NRM planning and field activities are not well integrated into activities that strengthen

local level governance and generate tangible social, economic and financial benefits. In many areas, wildlife populations can be the source of considerable hardship for local communities, who may suffer crop damages and livestock losses without compensation, and even the loss of human lives. A number of pilot activities are being supported, however, to demonstrate how local communities can benefit to a greater degree from wildlife and other natural resources.

As became clear during the review of the preliminary findings of this assessment at the SO2 Partnership Retreat, a “vision” of what CBNRM might become and how in Tanzania is gradually emerging among many CBNRM stakeholders and program supporters. The following key elements of this vision were discussed at the retreat, and are largely grounded in the findings of this assessment.

The Vision: Resources are managed better and communities in Tanzania are fully engaged in CBNRM and are economically, socially and legally benefiting from it.

Necessary Conditions

- Widespread access to information at all levels in local languages that describe the policies, laws, rights, lessons learned and other guidelines to “facilitate” CBNRM.
- A diversity of CBNRM approaches has been tested and replicated throughout the country, and the CBNRM policies, guidelines and regulations are fully applied so that communities have greater control over natural resources.
- Coordinated institutional support for CBNRM, across sectors and among key stakeholders.
- Increasing numbers of empowered villages and community based organizations, together with an association or federation of CBOs that is organized as a constituency to advocate for CBNRM and to promote greater accountability in implementing and supporting CBNRM
- Communities have increased revenue collection, households are richer, poverty is reduced.

As the vision articulated by the SO2 partners illustrates, there is plenty of evidence and widespread agreement that CBNRM could improve Tanzanian livelihoods and contribute to the sustainable use and improved management of natural resources. Furthermore, it seems apparent that the realization of CBNRM’s potential in Tanzania is not limited so much by a lack of technical information, or processes for monitoring, low potential economic benefits, or by a lack of community interest. There is adequate experience with CBNRM in Tanzania and elsewhere to design and implement a successful national program to support the transition to “full CBNRM.” The assessment team felt that the realization of CBNRM’s potential is limited more by inadequate support for democratic governance, a reluctance to analyze and address issues related to the political economy of CBNRM (issues of power and money), and an associated weakness of national political will to unequivocally devolve rights and decentralize the management of valuable resources.

But in that very problem lies a potential solution: CBNRM offers an excellent platform for mobilizing civil society to support the legitimacy of politicians who press for governance reform.

Some 80 percent of Tanzanian citizens depend on natural resources for their livelihoods. Control of access to these natural resources is hotly political because by controlling access to natural resources, powerful figures in government are positioned to benefit personally from allocating those resources. The current government is committed to reducing corruption and to shifting resource allocation decisions downward to district and local levels. At this moment in history, natural resource governance issues offer a focus for building constituency pressure for the more systemic reforms that are necessary to create the environment for successful CBNRM and for Tanzanian economic development in general. Experience from Zimbabwe and Namibia further suggests that CBNRM can be a powerful force for pushing democratic reforms if attention is paid to maintaining strategic long-term support to prevent central government from rolling back rights (“aborted devolution”) gained under CBNRM initiatives.

Recent analysis of the “enabling conditions” for investment in sound forest management in the West Africa region bear many similarities to the emerging set of conditions that would also most likely be necessary in Tanzania in order to move forward and scale up CBNRM to reach its full potential (see Box on Enabling Conditions for Community Based Forest Management).

The field visits for the CBNRM Assessment suggested that a number of these conditions and related best practices are contributing to the success of CBNRM in Tanzania, notably:

- Expanded support for awareness raising, exchange visits
- Participatory planning
- Local empowerment and devolution of authority for resource monitoring, protection, and policing
- Government support among field level technical services for CBNRM pilot activities
- Investment in training and capacity building in book-keeping and financial management
- Increased access to local level economic benefits (game meat distribution, community development funds, etc.)

Some of the critically important enabling conditions which have yet to be fully established or widely applied in Tanzania include:

- Clarification and simplification of procedures for significant devolution of responsibilities, authorities and rights to community-based user groups, organizations and enterprises
- Reform of fiscal policies and progressive shifts in revenue sharing
- Literacy training, enterprise development training, and further capacity building to promote increased access to capital (micro-credit, joint ventures) and to larger and more lucrative markets
- Promotion of the role of civil society and the media in advocacy and oversight related to CBNRM

Enabling Conditions

The following enabling conditions for investment in sound forest management were identified based on the field visits and workshop discussions.

Individuals are more likely to invest in sound forest management when they:

- ♦ perceive that they have clear authority to manage the forest resource and have rights over the products of better management;
- ♦ have access to capital and markets for the products of better management;
- ♦ have access to appropriate technical assistance and knowledge of a broad range of management options;
- ♦ belong to democratically run, business-based, legally recognized producer groups;
- ♦ are able to fund forest management operations with revenue generated by local forest-based activities; and
- ♦ can balance forest management with other aspects of the rural production system.

The above conditions were created by one or more of the following actions:

Policy or legal reforms that:

- ♦ devolved authority to local populations;
- ♦ provided property rights or usufruct security for products of better management;

- ♦ allowed legally recognized producer groups to develop management plans and legally recognized bylaws for managing local forest resources and allowed them to enter into contracts with private operators and/or government on exploitation of forest resources;
- ♦ allowed for revenues generated from forest enterprises to be reinvested in management at the site of exploitation and to support Forest Service Operations; and
- ♦ were communicated and are well known to rural populations.

Institutional reforms that:

- ♦ strengthened the technical assistance function of the Forestry Service and turn it into a Service that acts more like a partner than a policeman;
- ♦ allowed for the legal recognition of CBOs and the development of clear, practical, and simple forest management plans by the Forestry Service and CBOs working as a partnership; and
- ♦ allowed for legal recognition of CSOs and freedom of association

Research and Training efforts that:

- ♦ supported government and private sector professionals in gaining forest inventory and management skills;
- ♦ supported community members in functional literacy, numeracy, enterprise and organizational management, as well as community-to-community visits to exchange experiences;
- ♦ researched forest management and forest product processing; and
- ♦ developed and supported knowledge management systems aimed at identifying, assessing, and broadly disseminating information about forestry experiences (not only to other producers, but to Forestry Service personnel, donors and the international community).

Support to CBOs that:

- ♦ provided intermediary services to CBOs to help them gain credit and markets without creating dependencies or market distortions; and
- ♦ developed infrastructure to link rural populations to markets.

- Strengthening of knowledge management, information dissemination, communication and environmental education activities
- Strengthening of adaptive research and extension efforts, particularly in the areas of land use and NRM planning, resource inventory and monitoring techniques, and procedures to ensure sustained yield harvesting and regeneration of natural resources
- Increased attention to policy research and institutional reforms, particularly with respect to issues related to the political economy of CBNRM, and establishment of appropriate checks and balances

The connection, noted in the 1996 assessment of options for USAID support for CBNRM in Tanzania (Elias & Hitchcock 1996), is still valid:

“The hypothesis is that to be sustainable, solutions to problems at any level must be supported by actions at the other levels. Community level field interventions .. seek solutions to very targeted resource management challenges and carry those solutions through the vertical institutional and legislative structures - both upstream and downstream.... During Tanzania’s transition to a multi-party democracy, the system’s credibility will be judged in part by the strength and independence of local government. ... Building a sustainable system of natural resource management can be the practical function around which effective local government can be created. By concentrating on the vertical institutional linkages between local [village, ward and district] government, the communities they represent, and nation decision-makers, mechanisms can be put in place to ensure effective community participation in NRM policy dialogue” (p.23).

There are multiple opportunities to build on what is working, by giving more attention to governance and economic aspects, as well as environmental conservation. There is a particular need to ensure good linkages and field level integration between CBNRM, democracy/governance, agriculture, poverty reduction and other economic growth development assistance strategies and support programs.

In the short term, expanded efforts to promote greater information sharing about the emerging and proven “best practices” for CBNRM in Tanzania provide a relatively efficient and effective means to stimulate and support the expansion of CBNRM activities, including

- The use of literacy training, bookkeeping, community organization, PRA, formulation of bylaws, legalization of CBOs, participatory local development planning and natural resource-based enterprise development as effective entry points for CBNRM
- Continued focus on meeting the needs for training and capacity building in key areas
- Increase collaboration and support by central and district government technical services for land use planning, NRM planning, adaptation and assistance with participatory natural resource monitoring techniques, oversight of equitable benefit distribution plans, and assistance with marketing, access to credit, enterprise development and joint ventures.

There are numerous signs that local communities were willing to act in the face of threats to their natural resources from destructive fishing practices, over-fishing, uncontrolled bush fires, hunting, poaching, indiscriminate fuelwood harvesting, timber cutting, erosion, and conversion of rangeland and forestland to other uses (mainly agriculture, commercial farming by outsiders). To be effective, local efforts aimed at resource protection, monitoring and improved management need to be followed up and supported by local authorities responsible for law enforcement and natural resource management. And local investments in resource protection and restoration can be strengthened by a progressive transfer of rights and authority for increased local control over the use of the resource. Experience from Tanzania as well as other countries suggests that communities need to be ensured of:

- Legal recognition and empowerment of community-based organizations with a mandate, responsibility and powers to implement CBNRM activities.

- Support and collaboration from government agencies responsible for allocation of quotas and devolution of CBNRM rights and powers.
- Assistance and support with the identification and demarcation of areas reserved for CBNRM activities.
- Legitimization and legal recognition of land use plans produced through participatory planning exercises and in collaboration with local authorities.
- Clarification and transfer of authority to levy and collect fines and other revenues from NRM activities.
- Clarification and transfer of authority to decide upon resource access and to issue permits for use and harvesting of resources within designated CBNRM areas.
- Clarification and transfer of authority to decide upon and monitor distribution of benefits.
- Technical support in NRM planning, inventory, monitoring, promotion of sustainable use practices.
- Technical and financial support for the development of natural resource based enterprises and accessing new markets for their higher-valued products.
- Investments at the local level in resource protection, restoration and more intensive management are directly tied to income-generation, jobs, and a greater flow of products and services to the community.

4.3 Recommended Follow Up

The assessment team realizes that there is no “blueprint” or single model to propose to guarantee success with CBNRM. Yet many of the lessons learned from this and other assessments of CBNRM could be usefully applied to ensure a greater chance of achieving positive impacts and sustainable results over the long run.

It is not the intent of this report to recommend the specific details of a CBNRM strategy and national program for Tanzania. There are a number of working groups, task forces and other initiatives that are well positioned to support the stakeholder consultation process and other activities that could be organized to develop and launch such a program.

Given the continuing need to adapt and deepen the experience with CBNRM in Tanzania, rather than recommending a specific approach or to promote CBNRM, the team is recommending a series of mostly process-related follow up activities that could be pursued over the next 12 months.

1. ***Circulate the assessment report*** to all key stakeholders, in order to obtain additional complementary information and commentary on the assessment findings. This would include for example, the SO2 MRWG, SO2 partners (SO3, SO9), key GOT agencies with an interest

in CBNRM (NEMC, DOE, WD, FBD, Fisheries, etc.) interested donors (GTZ, WB, DFID, DANIDA, UNDP), other stakeholders in the CBC community in Tanzania.

2. ***Prepare “user friendly” summaries*** in English and Ki-Swahili of the assessment report and commentaries and disseminate to community leaders and key decision makers; incorporate the main findings from the lessons learned about best practices and enabling conditions as well as information about documented impacts and benefits.
3. ***Use the assessment results in awareness raising and training activities organized to promote and support CBNRM.*** A number of CBNRM partners and stakeholders are currently involved in developing guidelines, source books, and “tool kits” for awareness raising or other training activities designed to promote and support CBNRM initiatives at the local level.
4. ***Promote networking, information sharing*** as well as continued assessments and “stocktaking” exercises to expand and update lessons learned and best practices; encourage the use of information management tools such as the NRM Tracker and CBNRM websites to increase the accessibility and utility of research results, directory of service providers and other information.
5. ***Support more community to community exchanges.*** The assessment team noted the usefulness and potentially important role of community to community exchanges or study tours / field visits in stimulating and informing CBNRM initiatives. Clearly, a number of activities need to be supported to launch and to build capacity among community-based organizations. In addition to making the assessment report widely available, the most convincing way to share the assessment findings is to enable community members to visit other communities and to see for themselves what can be achieved and how.
6. ***Develop and adopt a common vision for achieving CBNRM*** and identify priorities for corresponding support programs and assistance activities; ***establish a mechanism to monitor and report on progress in achieving key benchmarks*** and other actions needed to establish the full range of enabling conditions necessary for the “take off” and widespread replication and expansion of CBNRM activities.
7. ***Accelerate efforts to harmonize and strengthen the legal and regulatory framework*** for CBNRM across all NRM subsectors.
8. ***Apply the insights gained from program monitoring and evaluation***, improved information management and “collective learning” among CBNRM stakeholders in Tanzania to target additional actions needed, and to ***make needed adjustment in policies and program priorities.***
9. Support mechanisms for local level networking and the emergence of federations of CBNRM CBOs to build a ***stronger constituency and more effective voice for governance reforms*** that support CBNRM.

Annex A. Scope of Work for the CBNRM Assessment

1. Purpose and Scope

This activity has been designed as part of a broader assessment of Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM)³² best practices that is being undertaken by USAID's Africa Bureau, Office of Sustainable Development (AFR/SD) in a number of African countries and subregions. The Tanzania component of the assessment will build on what's known about positive CBNRM experiences by rapidly assessing a sample of successful CBNRM across different NRM subsectors (e.g., forestry, marine, etc.), and sharing that information with interested stakeholders. Insights from specific, positive CBNRM experiences in Tanzania will contribute to information compiled for the broader, Africa-wide assessment by AFR/SD for the World Summit on Sustainable Development (planned for August, 2002 in South Africa).³³

To ensure that the Assessment achieves its objectives and is relevant to the USAID Tanzania NRM (SO2) Program, AFR/SD and the Assessment Team will receive guidance from the SO2 Program's Community Based Conservation (CBC) Management Regime Working Group (MRWG).

2. Approach

The following points represent the approach to be taken during the Assessment:

- a) The Assessment will build on interest and momentum generated to date in assessing CBNRM experiences, capitalizing on positive lessons learned and emerging "best practices" (e.g. utilizing previously documented case studies);
- b) The Assessment will recognize that valuable insights can be gained from looking at what has worked well, and at instances where positive changes and benefits are evident; identify a few particularly promising initiatives that, for example:
 - Have generated positive environmental and/or behavioral changes, and socioeconomic benefits;

³² That overall implementation of CBNRM (the term Community Based Conservation "CBC" is more commonly used within the USAID Tanzania NRM Program) is carried out within various NRM subsectors (e.g., agriculture, soil, water, livestock, forestry, fisheries, community development, wildlife, coastal, etc.), and may be implemented and supported by a variety of actors (e.g., private sector, individuals, government departments, NGOs/CBO, and parastatals, donors, etc.). CBNRM initiatives go by many different names, but all address the key issue of involving local and indigenous communities in managing and deriving benefits from natural resources.

³³ It is recommended that this CBNRM Assessment be followed up at a later date in Tanzania (in perhaps 2-3 years) with a more in-depth and comprehensive activity with the collaboration of AFR/SD and other partners using a variety of approaches, including "Stocktaking," focusing specifically on Tanzania's collective experience in operationalizing WMAs.

- Have been ongoing for at least several years and had a chance to evolve, adapt to local conditions and develop “best practices;”
 - Are representative of CBNRM as it applies to various subsectors, through a contribution to the improved management of one or more natural resources (e.g., soil, water, forests, pasture, fisheries, wildlife, etc.);
 - Are representative of varied levels and modes of development assistance partnerships (different donors, public/private partnerships, government/NGO assistance) and minimal dependence on long-term project assistance;
 - Are likely to be illustrative of “best practices,” with numerous “lessons learned;”
- c) Successful or promising CBNRM initiatives to be visited during the Assessment will be determined in consultation with the CBC MRWG, and field visits will be organized in close collaboration with SO2 partners. The CBC MRWG will also recommend any Tanzanian participation in the Assessment, in addition to other Assessment Team members (see below);
- d) Small multi-disciplinary teams (including technical specialists fielded by AID/W) will review documentation and carry out a small number of field visits, to assess the experiences and identify the “best practices” represented by the selected initiatives;
- e) To the extent feasible, community to community exchanges will be organized in connection with the field visits and presentation of findings, to increase participation in the assessment process, to gain insights from the perspectives of rural communities and to contribute to capacity-building among community-based organizations;
- f) Findings of the CBNRM Assessment would aim to provide factual and objective information about the nature and extent of changes in CBNRM practices, with focus on positive social, economic, environmental and governance related impacts, to the constraints overcome or enabling conditions established, and to the opportunities and prospects for leveraging additional widespread, positive changes;
- g) Findings will be presented and discussed during the SO2 Annual Program Retreat. The SO2 Strategic Objective Team will ensure that the Retreat is attended by a representative group of CBNRM stakeholders for the presentation and discussion of the findings of the CBNRM Assessment. AFR/SD may facilitate participation of regional resource persons in the Retreat, to help ensure consideration of information gained from the broader, Africa-wide CBNRM Assessment in the presentation and discussion of findings of the Tanzania component;
- h) Final results of the Assessment will be disseminated to enable interested CBNRM stakeholders in Tanzania to become more familiar with “best practices” and to capitalize on positive experiences gained to date in CBNRM in various subsectors in both Tanzania and across Africa.

3. General Suggested Timeframe

January 2002

- Compile Background Information; Prepare List of Potential Sites
- Review and finalize Assessment and List of Sites at CBC MRWG Meeting

February 2002

- Conduct fieldwork
- Discuss preliminary findings at SO2 Program Retreat

March 2002

- Finalize Assessment Report

For a more detailed schedule, see proposed Calendar of Events.

4. Assessment Team

The CBNRM Assessment Team will include the following:

- In-Country Coordinator(s);
- Technical Advisor / social scientist - CBNRM specialist;
- Specialists with backgrounds (combined, to the extent feasible) in Coastal resources / Fisheries, Biodiversity Conservation / Wildlife Management, Forestry, Land Use / Rural Development, Rangeland Management / Pastoralism, Agriculture / Soil and Water Conservation.

5. CBNRM Initiatives—Possible Sites for Field Visits

Due to the limited scope and time available for the Assessment, only a handful of sites can be considered for field visits. Fortunately, a large amount of up-to-date documentation on Tanzanian CBNRM experiences is already available for consultation (e.g., NRM Tracker; EPIQ), so that field work will not be required to capture most cases. The Assessment Team will rely on the advice of the CBC MRWG in selection of sites to visit. It is envisaged that each subsector group would visit 2-3 sites. Criteria for selection are included in the earlier section “Approach.” As an example, the following is a list of sites that might be given particular attention (among others), and which may be judged to fit with the suggested criteria:

- *Jukumu* CBNRM activity (Morogoro). Participatory forest/wildlife resource protection, benefit sharing north of Selous;

- *Shirikisho*. Participatory, community based integrated coastal resources management initiative, locally imposed controls on dynamite fishing, community based management of coastal fisheries;
- *Jozani Chwaka Bay Conservation Project – Zanzibar*. Communities benefiting from increased revenues and employment from tourism, forest-based enterprises supported by community organizations;
- *HIMA*. Successful Iringa soil and water conservation program;
- *HADO*. Soil conservation program in Dodoma successful in managing heavily eroded sites;
- *Tanga Coastal Zone Management Project*. One of the best examples of community based coastal resource management in East Africa;
- *Bagamoyo District*. A good example of a new district that is making good progress in coastal zone management;
- *Duru-Haitemba Community Based Forest Management*. Successful community-based effort to restore degraded woodlands, with increased local benefits. Possible model for wider scale implementation of new forest policy;
- *HASHI*. Agroforestry program in Shinyanga aimed at reclaiming areas degraded due to poor agricultural practices.

Annex B. Assessment Team Members and Contributors

Dan Moore, USAID/Tanzania and the staff of the USAID AFR/SD/ENR team (**Greg Booth**, **Mike McGahuey**, **Jon Anderson**) played a key role in developing the Scope of Work and organizing the CBNRM Assessment.

Fred Sowers, IRG consultant for the USAID funded EPIQ/AFR-SD activity, carried out the initial literature review and prepared the initial Issues Paper for the CBNRM Assessment in January, 2001. **Kara Page**, social scientist with IRG-EPIQ/AFR-SD, assisted in the planning and preliminary organization of the assessment in December, 2001; she also took the lead in information management activities related to the assessment. **B.J. Humplick**, IT / Communication specialist, assisted the team with compilation of background documentation and facilitation of entries into the NRM Tracker database (see www.nrmtracker.org).

Asukile Kajuni and **Hussein Sosovele** served as Co-Coordiators for the organization of the assessment fieldwork in January-February 2002, and were supported by **Janis Alcorn**, Technical Advisor for the Assessment, and Audax Mujuni of WWF/Tanzania. This core team was assisted by a number of specialists from USAID, including **Richard Volk**, **Robin Martino** and **Dan Evans**.

The following people participated in the fieldwork for the assessment.

Team Member	Title / Expertise	Institution	Sites Visited
Asukile Kajuni	Co-coordinator, Wildlife Management	USAID/Tanzania	TanzaKesho (Mbozi), Tungamalenga -MBOMIPA (Iringa), Hurt, Manyara Trustland
Hussein Sosovele	Co-coordinator, Economist	WWF/Tanzania	Familiar with sites from previous visits
Audax Mujuni	Policy Program Assistant	WWF/Tanzania	Mgori (Singida) and Jukumu
Janis Alcorn	Social scientist and IRG consultant	IRG-EPIQ/AFR-SD	Ngarambe (Rufiji), Mgori (Singida), TanzaKesho (Mbozi), Tungamalenga - MBOMIPA (Iringa)
Robin Martino	Biodiversity Conservation specialist	USAID/Washington	Jukumu, Robanda, Ololosokwan
Richard Volk	Integrated Coastal Management specialist	USAID/Washington	Tanga, Pangani coastal districts
Dan Evans	Agricultural economist	USAID/REDSO	Robanda, Manyara Trustland, Cullman and Hurt (Monduli), Ololosokwan

The Assessment team was also assisted in their field work by the local community members, CBNRM project staff and field support personnel of District government, Wildlife Division, Forestry and Bee-keeping Division, TANAPA, AWF, WWF.

Jon Anderson, forester with USAID's AFR/SD/ENR unit and **Bob Winterbottom**, forester/policy specialist with IRG-EPIQ/AFR-SD, assisted in the analysis of the results and in the preparation of the final report.

Annex C. List of People Contacted by the Assessment Team

1. Rufiji District, Ngarambe—eastern sector of Selous Game Reserve,

1. WWF Selous project /WD staff: C. Malima Project Executant
2. Ngarambe village meeting: ten people including chair of Village Council, Natural Resources Committee officers, game scouts, teacher, village resident

2. Singida District, Mgori Forest

1. LAMP project staff: project coordinator, forestry advisor, microfinance advisor, social science advisor, forest liaison officer, IMDA liaison officer
2. District Office: Acting DED, DFO, District Fisheries Officer
3. Ward Executive Officer
3. Village meetings:

Unyampana and Dmogongo—23 people (5 women) including members of village government, officers of Village Forest Council, village residents

Ngimu—16 people (3 women) including village leaders, VFC members

3. Mbozi District, Capacity 21—TanzaKesho program

1. Professor Kikula, Dar Es Salaam University—local Capacity 21 Coordinator
2. Ms. Malin Krook - UNDP Program Officer—Governance and Human Rights
3. Ms. Dorothy Mwanyika—Mbozi Tanza Kesho Capacity 21 Advisor
4. Mbozi District Council Core team—14 members representing all district departments

Ms. Rita Kamenya	Community Development
Ms. Patricia K. Sawala	Education
Mr. Asante Ndimbo	Agriculture
Mr. Nason Kigobanya	Agriculture/Livestock
Mr. Eliud H. Mwakibombaki	Planning
Dr. T. Rukalisha	Veterinary (Livestock)
Mr. M.I. Mushi	Forestry
Mr. Ezra A. Aluko	District Planning Officer (Chairperson)
Mr. Donald J.A. Msahni	Lands
Mr. G.N. Mwakatima	District Natural Resources Officer
Mr. Henry Mgingi	PRA Specialist

Mr. Akiba Kibona

Water Technician

5. Village meetings:

Chipaka—couldn't meet village government leaders and resorted to interviewing people at a primary school

Ukwile—22 people attended including village leaders and environment committee members

Mr. Blackiwelo Msongole	Village Chairperson
Mr. Wangson Siwale	Village Executive Officer
Mr. Ningsigwe Kibona	Member village government
Mr. Willy Sichwale	member
Mr. Alfred Gambi	member
Mr. Aston Mtawa	member
Ms. Huruma Siwale	member
Mr. Andrea Kaminyonge	member
Mr. Obadia Kibona	member
Ms. Catherine Lwabi	member
Ms. Ruth Mwamugunda	member
Mr. Daniel Mtafya	School Committee Chairperson
Ms. Grace Mbukwa	member
Ms. Sophia Mwashitete	member
Ms. Mackilina Nankonde	member
Mr. Bishop Siwale	member
Mr. Emmanuel Gambi	member
Mr. Gabriel Msokwa	member
Mr. Christopher Msokwa	member

Mbozi—6 people (others at funeral) included village leaders and Agriculture Extension Officer

Mr. J.T Shiuga	Village Chairperson
Mr. D.A. Mwenga	Village Executive Officer
Mr. Watson Sapi	member village government
Ms. H. Mwambene	member
Mr. E.T.S. Konga	Village Vet Auxiliary
Mr. A. Waya	Ward Executive Officer

4. Iringa District—MBOMIPA program

1. District Government—District Natural Resources Officer, District Forest Officer and District Game Officer
2. Ward Executive Officer
3. MBOMIPA project staff—technical advisor, project manager, social scientist

4. Village meeting—Tungamalenga—18 people including village government and Natural Resources Committee members

Mr. Juma Ganyiluka	Village Chairperson
Mr. Zakaria Ndongole	Village Executive Officer
Mr. M.E. Msuva	member village government
Mr. Daud Marazi	member
Mr. Bahati Mgafu	member
Mr. Khamis Nyove	member
Mr. John A. Samila	Commander Village Game Scouts
Mr. Makambo D. Mbarazi	Village Game Scout
Ms. Angela Samwel	Natural Resources Committee Secretary
Mr. Clarence Kidago	member
Mr. Josephat Sambaga	member
Mr. Erasmus Kidunye	member
Mr. Geremana Fumbe	member
Ms. Veronica Nzota	member
Ms. Oliva Nyangwa	member
Ms. Delfina Kidago	member
Blandina Kilyenyi	member
Mr. V. Mwaikambo	Community Development Officer

Annex D. Summary Description—Draft Working Document Presented to the SO2 Partnership Retreat, Zanzibar, February 20, 2002

Objective and Context

The Assessment of Best Practices in Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) in Tanzania aims to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of environmental conservation and natural resource management programs by identifying, analyzing, capitalizing and systematically applying lessons learned from successful CBNRM experiences. The assessment is being supported by USAID/Africa Bureau, Office of Sustainable Development (AFR/SD) and the USAID/Tanzania Mission in collaboration with its SO2 partnership, as well as USAID's central and regional offices.

The organization of the assessment was motivated by the perception that valuable insights can be gained from looking at “best practices” and “lessons learned” from CBNRM experiences in the field. These are activities that have worked well and have been successful in stimulating favorable changes in environmental conditions, increased socio-economic benefits, improved governance or otherwise contributing to positive changes in behavior and well-being at the community level. The assessment is not designed to be a comprehensive evaluation of any given project, nor is it intended to be an in-depth review of Community Based Conservation activities or other CBNRM programs in Tanzania.

The Tanzania assessment has been designed as part of a broader effort to review CBNRM experiences in six countries in West Africa (Guinea, Senegal, Mali, Burkina Faso, Niger, Chad) as well as Uganda, Madagascar, Namibia and Botswana. These assessments are generating a number of insights and knowledge about successful approaches to CBNRM that are being compiled for the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), planned for August-September 2002 in South Africa. The assessment findings will also contribute to an ongoing effort to document the “institutional memory” of 15 years of program support by AFR/SD.

Overview of the Process

In January 2001, at the last SO2 retreat, the rationale for “stocktaking” and related assessments was outlined and discussed with the SO2 partnership. Since that time, efforts have been underway to share documentation about assessments in West Africa and elsewhere via the AFR/SD supported activities of FRAME and NRM Tracker (see www.frameweb.org and www.nrmtracker.org) and through associated outreach workshops. Over the past several months, a consultative process was organized to prepare the assessment scope of work, compile background documentation, organize the assessment team, identify sites for field visits, culminating in a review of the draft SOW and plans for the CBNRM assessment field visits by the CBC Management Regime Working Group during its last meeting in January 2002.

During the current SO2 retreat and over the next few weeks, the assessment team will review and discuss their preliminary findings with SO2 partners, and engage them in helping to identify the

key elements related to positive environmental, economic and governance outcomes of selected CBNRM activities in Tanzania. The team will then finalize their report on the field visits, highlighting the lessons learned and “conditions for success.” The partnership is also being encouraged to identify opportunities to strengthen information sharing among SO2 partners, in order to build upon this initial assessment and to foster continuing analysis and learning from lessons learned in CBNRM.

The approach taken by the assessment team has included the following steps:

- Document review, including information from the CBNRM Issues Paper and NRM Tracker entries
- Site visits and interviews to discern positive experiences (appreciative inquiry)
- Review of field level impacts or results, and analysis of contributing factors, in three key areas:
 - environmental / biophysical
 - economic / social
 - governance / institutional

Organization of the Field Work

The fieldwork for the assessment was organized to capture experiences in CBNRM across a range of natural resource management sub-sectors, including: Coastal Zone Management, Community Forestry / Biodiversity, Wildlife / Community based Tourism, Pastoral / Rangeland Management, Land Use and Community based Development.

In selecting the sites to be visited, the CBC MRWG and the team adopted the following criteria:

- Reported to have stimulated or contributed to positive outcomes related to the three target areas (environment, economic, governance) and therefore likely to be good examples or illustrations of “best practices”
- Activities with proven experience, over at least several years
- Experiences that are broadly representative of CBNRM approaches in different sub-sectors (coastal, forestry, etc.)
- Activities that have been supported by a range of donors and development assistance mechanisms; the assessment was not designed to only examine the experience of USAID-funded activities

The role of SO2 partners and USAID/Washington support teams

To the greatest extent possible, the assessment was designed to provide an opportunity for SO2 partners to review and reflect upon their own experiences with CBNRM approaches, and to learn from other CBNRM experiences in Tanzania. While prior commitments to the implementation of other planned activities has impeded the full participation of a number of SO2 partners, it was felt that the SO2 partnership retreat provides an excellent opportunity for the members of each MRWG to both enrich and validate the tentative findings of the assessment team.

Traditionally the Environment/Natural Resource Management team in the Office of Sustainable Development of the Africa Bureau (AFR/SD) has sought to fulfill a number of functions in relationship to mission programs with the view to adding value to mission programs:

- Technical backstopping to ongoing E/NR programs
- Strategic programmatic input (assistance to Mission strategy development and SO design)
- Analyzing and sharing lessons learned and environmental information (stocktaking of results and enabling conditions, formulation and assessment of changes in development hypotheses, development of tools to facilitate information management and dissemination, etc)
- Developing and providing regionally adapted analytic tools (modeling, monitoring, decision support, advocacy, etc.)
- Assessment of regional and sub-regional environmental trends
- Scoping out emerging issues (relationship between environment and conflict, etc),
- Defending and promoting Mission environmental programs during budget exercises at the regional level
- Promoting linkages between environmental programs and other initiatives (agriculture, anti-corruption, HIV/AIDS, democracy/governance, micro-enterprise development, etc.)
- Managing regional programs in non-presence countries (CARPE—Central Africa Regional Program for the Environment)
- Being the environmental conscience of the Bureau and assuring environmental compliance of all programs

This exercise relates to several of these functions. In carrying out these functions, the AFR/SD/ENR team works closely with the specialized teams of USAID's central bureau, recently reorganized to support Economic Growth, Agriculture and Trade (EGAT). The Environment/Biodiversity and Coastal/Water teams of EGAT have supported the SO2 partnership since its inception, and have extended that support through their participation in the CBNRM Assessment in Tanzania.

Questions for the Retreat

As we come together in the retreat, we would like to seize the opportunity to answer the following questions related to the CBNRM assessment:

1. *What's happening* on the ground? What do you feel are the most exciting results or impacts from CBNRM experiences in Tanzania? Did the team identify the most significant successes?
2. *Why* did it happen? What are the key conditions for success, with respect to the three target areas? *How* was the most successful CBNRM program support organized and how did it work? What *lessons* have been learned from these experiences that could help us build upon and replicate or extend these successes?
3. Where do we want to go from here? What is our *vision* of what could be as we seek to promote CBNRM? How would you characterize a successful outcome to CBNRM programs that could be achieved in 5-10 years? What are the chief *issues* that remain to be addressed?
4. What additional actions are needed? What do we need to do differently? What *action propositions* can we formulate to help us get there and realize the vision?

Preliminary Findings

The attached summary descriptions were compiled from the draft reports being prepared to document the findings from the field visits. These brief descriptions are intended to highlight the major characteristics of these experiences that may offer insights into the conditions for success and lessons learned about proven “best practices” to support CBNRM initiatives, with due attention to environmental management, socio-economic and governance aspects.

Annex E. Detailed Site Visit Reports / Case Study Documentation

NGARAMBE Village—WWF community-based wildlife management activity

By Janis Alcorn, IRG/EPIQ consultant

Ngarambe is located on the edge of Selous Game Reserve, 6 km from the Reserve headquarters village housing 400 staff working in the eastern sector. Big game hunters use Selous Game Reserve during a six month hunting season. A compacted dirt road passes through Ngarambe, connecting the Reserve headquarters to the Rufiji district government center and to the ferry over the Rufiji river. Ngarambe settlement was relocated outside the reserve boundary when the reserve was established in XXX. In the 70s, during villagization, Ngarambe was moved to another location along the Rufiji river and its buildings were all demolished. After many people died from malaria in the new location, the survivors moved their village back to its earlier location. The elders know the village boundaries and rituals are held together with neighboring villages.

The population of 2,500 people includes three ethnic groups, but one group is dominant. The village territory covers 22,579 hectares, including rich agricultural flood plain and forested uplands. Village livelihoods are based on farming, including some cash crops and vegetables for sale in Selous Reserve; temporary labor in Selous Reserve; temporary labor for loggers; and sale of plaited mats to tourists and hunters. The main crops are maize, sesame, rice and peanuts. Wildlife damage crops but they receive no compensation for this damage.

The men traditionally hunted wildlife for meat, and the Reserve management viewed the village as a poacher village prior to the project. Now there is much greater trust between Selous management and Ngarambe, which is no longer viewed as a poacher village.

In 1995, GTZ began a sensitization campaign in the area to raise awareness of a program that would enable villages around the reserve to benefit from wildlife. Ngarambe accepted the GTZ program. The GTZ program provides the option of specific processes and guidelines for benefiting from wildlife in some fifty villages around the reserve. In other sectors around the reserve, DFID and African Development Bank are supporting similar activities. The experiences from these activities are being used by Wildlife Department to craft national guidelines for Wildlife Management Areas.

In 1997, WWF's Selous Eastern Sector Conservation and Management Project began assist Ngarambe and a neighboring village established by people from Ngarambe to implement this program.

WWF has provided funding, training, and technical assistance for four years. Funding includes the cost of training, and the purchase and delivery of materials for construction of community buildings and a grain mill. Villagers contributed labor and bricks. WWF expects to end its assistance to Ngarambe soon and expand to eight new villages, because the activity has become self-sustaining in Ngarambe.

Selous Reserve has also built trust by offering access to the headquarters' staff clinic and providing emergency transportation for villagers.

Biophysical

The objective is to control hunting of wildlife outside the reserve and maintain wildlife habitat. Under the GTZ-Wildlife Department program, the village is given a hunting quota by the Wildlife Department Director. The village is granted the right to hunt meat for domestic use and to sell part of its quota to "resident hunters," Tanzanians who live outside the village. In order to receive this benefit, the village must create a Natural Resources Management Committee and maintain game scouts. Scouts are authorized to carry guns and to hunt meat for sale to village members. They are also responsible for patrolling and controlling hunting by poachers; controlling problem animals; keeping peace in the village, and collecting basic field data on animals observed while on patrol. Game scouts receive formal training from the Wildlife Department in paramilitary operations, use of guns, identification of animals, hunting supervision, and presentation of evidence to police and judge. They also receive guidance from elders on traditional knowledge of local wildlife and how to hunt.

In addition, the Village must create a Land Use Zone map and designate an area for Wildlife Management and forest. In exchange for village agreement to set aside lands for these uses, the project facilitates the granting of village land titles.

As a result of the project, poaching has been reduced and wildlife numbers have increased. Although wildlife damage of crops has also increased, village members view this as an acceptable cost associated with the benefits from the project. The success in controlling hunting is based on the project creating conditions for success in governance and economics appropriate to the social, legal, and biophysical conditions and to the threats to the resource.

Governance

The village Natural Resources Committee is formed under the Village Council (local government). It includes 12 members, one of whom is chair and another of whom is responsible for managing the funds (a secretary). The Village Council chair is also a member.

The committee manages the Game Scouts, a beekeeping enterprise, and the funds generated by the activities. They also assert their responsibilities to protect their forests and are seeking district government recognition of their rights to supervise logging sanctioned by district government. They also initiate requests for changes in their hunting quota, based on information gathered by their Game Scouts. They liaise with district government and national government through the District Game Officer. Donors use them as the point of contact with the village on wildlife management matters.

The NR Council follows rules given to them by Wildlife Department. They set the prices for "resident hunters" fees based on guidance from WWF and WD. They initially worried the prices were too high (e.g., 150,000 shillings for a buffalo) but they found that hunters would pay the higher fees, because it was easy to find the animal on their land.

They set a tax on use of Ukindu grass that is used for plaiting mats. There are separate fees for domestic use and for commercial collectors. They are planning to create a rule to that sets tax on building poles.

In addition, they have instituted a local tax on loggers. By law, the logger gets a concession from district government and pays them a fee, but none of that funding reaches the village with the forest. They also made a decision to apprehend illegal loggers, although they are not empowered by law to do so. They would like to have formal recognition of their right to control loggers and ensure that they follow the national regulations for logging. Conflicts and infringements of rules not resolved by local village subunit leaders (10 families per subunit) are moved up the chain to village council and then to police. All illegal hunting is considered a criminal offense and Scouts must take the accused and their weapons to police, not to their village of origin.

The NR Committee's legitimacy is enhanced by open annual meetings where the budget is presented, together with an accounting for past years' expenses, and all village members discuss and select projects for using the village funds for the coming year. Neither the Village Council nor the District Council are as transparent in their management of funds.

The Village Natural Resources Committee also builds constituency involvement in the village by raising awareness of the benefits of wildlife as well as discussing the detrimental impacts of wildlife. In addition, their profile is enhanced by visiting groups from other villages brought by donors seeking to assist other villages to follow the example of Ngarambe.

Economics/Finance

The economic benefits from the activity provided the incentive for initiating the activity and for continuing it. In turn, the opportunity to manage funds has strengthened local governance and empowered local group decision-making.

Village Game Scouts do not receive any benefits from the Wildlife Department. The village is responsible for selecting the scouts and maintaining them. After the first year, the village decided to use some of the funds generated from wildlife to pay each scout an allowance and provide them with rations for their ten day patrol periods.

At the individual level, everyone values the opportunity for anyone to purchase meat and eat it openly. Previously all hunted meat was illegal and this limited distribution of meat to a few families. If someone needs meat but has no money, they may be lent the meat.

They reaped the benefits of establishing high fees that the market would bear, rather than underpricing and reducing their income. At the same time, they set the price for local village members at a reasonable level so the meat was always sold. They also offered an incentive of free meat to villagers who volunteered to bring the meat back to the village and help with butchering work.

They have also set taxes on harvesters of other natural resources as a way of controlling outside extractors and generating income for the village fund.

Good financial management and open communication was mentioned as very important for raising awareness of the benefits from wildlife. The accountant/secretary received bookkeeping training, and she maintains open books for the committee and the village. This is the first time the village has had money to manage and the transparency gives them ownership over managing the money in ways that benefits them.

Village funds have been used to build teachers' houses (in order to attract teachers) and renovate the school building which is in bad condition. This is greatly appreciated by all families, because the village receives no government assistance for school buildings. This is also appreciated by District Government which sees that the village is helping them to meet their national target without spending any district funding. Funds were also contributed toward an office for local government (with assistance from WWF and Selous) that includes offices for Village Council, the NR Committee and the butcher.

Village funds alone have not been sufficient to have own projects but have enabled the village to leverage donor funds for their projects. Village collects taxes for district government but the small amount that comes back to village is only sufficient to fund interaction with district government (take care of district officers who visit, travel to district to meetings, etc).

Conclusion

Generation of immediate tangible benefits (meat and public goods) and land title recognizing village lands were the key factors for success. The success generated by immediate benefits rested on transparent public decision making and management of funds. Good to have national policy that allows this benefit, but need law to ensure it. Villagers would like to see District Government be equally transparent with development funds it receives from national government, donors, and village taxes.

Remaining issues: the 25% of revenues that goes to District government is not transparently managed and no benefits return to the villages around the reserve. Villages would like to have a larger revenue to do their own projects, not enough now.

Management of Wildlife has spill over effect—are unilaterally taking charge of their forest and want rights to supervise activities of concessionaires (awarded by District) in their forest.

a) Governance

1. The following are important: security of tenure, open communication, transparency, clear roles and responsibilities, conflict resolution mechanisms, enhanced local decision-making authority, accountable enforcement of rules.
2. NR committee is viewed as legitimate and transparent.
3. Decisions about use of village funds and quotas are made without external intervention.
4. CBNRM activity addresses local priorities—meat and public benefits—school and mill.
5. CBNRM incorporates local knowledge of elders and hunters.

6. Citizens' trust of government agencies was enhanced and this contributes to better relations between WD and village.
7. By covering all NR including forest and wildlife, the NRC is more efficient.
8. Integrated with local government and clear connection with WD thru quota.
9. Imp of capacity building for government agents and committee. Training in bookkeeping and scout work was essential.
10. Participatory land use planning encourages village buy-in.
11. Cross-site visits and discussions are important for building civic alliances across landscape that in turn produce stronger communication with and between local governments/citizens.
12. Enforcement power of state encourages compliance.
13. Having guns gives enforcement power to village to confront outsider poachers of wood and wildlife.
14. Existence of national policy that lays out roles and relations between parties.... Local communities should participate in conservation and utilization of WF according to 1998 WL policy.

b) Economics

1. Benefits outweigh costs (livestock killed by animals vs. value of village fund)
2. Non-economic values (school teachers) balance costs.
3. Recognition—Receiving visitors on study tours “increases their moral to continue despite crop destruction.”
4. Market access must be good and reliable to be incentive to change—hunters know where to find their village,
5. Labor requirements are acceptable with minimum payment from village. Game Scouts enjoy their work and applying their training.
6. Equitable distribution of benefits reduces threat to resource (meat to all).
7. District Council appreciates the fact that villages are rehabilitating their schools without assistance from District, so they could use funds for other priorities. (in this case repaired District Game Officers car in recognition of fact that)
8. Additional funds and contributions from Selous Reserve and WWF may have tipped the balance for ensuring there were sufficient benefits (money from wildlife sales alone may not have been sufficient incentive for change).

9. Lack of other ways to generate funds for community public services means high value for small fund that can leverage other services—e.g., build teachers' house so can attract a teacher (with some help from WWF—roofing).

c) Biophysical

1. Immediate benefits generate quick results... meat in the pot, a bank account for village fund.
2. Location right next to Game Reserve. Sites near reserve contribute to size of animal populations in reserve as well as income to government thru healthy populations for hunters who pay high fees for hunting in game reserve.
3. Monitoring biophysical is necessary to determine if biophysical results are achieved and whether quota should be modified. Simple monitoring system best to get feedback in timely and efficient way. Quota can be modified with information provided by Villages from Game Scout monitoring.

JUKUMU Society—GTZ Selous Conservation Program wildlife management activity

Prepared by Robin Martino, USAID/Washington, Economic, Growth, Agriculture and Trade Bureau

Report details from interview with Regional Game Officer and Community Wildlife Management Officer, founder and instructor at Likuyu Seka Maganga CBC Training Center, Songea Region, JUKUMU Chairman and Appendix 1 of the EPIQ Assessment of Lessons Learned from Community Based Conservation in Tanzania.

Background—Selous Conservation Program (SCP) and JUKUMU Society local NGO

The Selous Game Reserve (SGR) is located in southeast Tanzania and covers an area of approximately 50,000 square kilometers. It is a protected area of exceptional conservation value in terms of its biological resources and ecosystem functions. SGR is characterized by open grassland, Acacia, Miombo woodlands, riverine forest and swamps. Two factors make the SGR an important protected area. The first is its sheer size making it one of the largest protected areas in Africa, and secondly it is a refuge to some of the largest elephant populations and black rhino, buffaloes, crocodile and wild dog. Seventy percent of Tanzania's elephants are in the Selous.³⁴ The Selous is also one of the largest continuous forest areas under protection. In 1982, the SGR was designated a World Heritage Site by the United Nations. In 1996, the reserve generated revenue from visitor's fee (US\$300,000 per year) and revenue from tourist hunting (US\$3.6 million per year).³⁵

³⁴ Baldus, R. *Community Wildlife Management around the SGR*. SCP Discussion Paper No. 12, 1991.

³⁵ Selous Game Reserve Statistics, 1998/99.

The major issues facing the management of SGR prior to the establishment of the SCP stem from problems of under-funding, illegal off-take of wildlife, and incompatible land use practices in the buffer zones that propagated human-wildlife conflicts. During the 1980s commercial poaching for ivory and rhino horn reached disastrous levels. Wildlife was competing with livestock for water and grazing land; and infecting livestock with diseases. Villagers suffered crop damage from wildlife such as bush pig, baboon, monkeys and elephants,³⁶ making agricultural production in the buffer zones of the reserve an incompatible form of land use. Communities surrounding the SGR did not accrue any direct benefits from wildlife, if anything they were shouldering a cost through crop losses. As a result, villages served as entry points for poachers. Villagers did most of the poaching because they are knowledgeable about the distribution and behavior of animals.

In addition, the SGR management authorities were severely constrained through the lack of sufficient trained personnel, finances and equipment to effectively service their mandates.

Foremost among Tanzania's efforts at community-based conservation is the Selous Conservation Program (SCP), initiated in 1987. It is the first pilot initiative in Tanzania that targets rural people as a basis for more effective wildlife Conservation.³⁷ It is called a National Project and the administration reports directly to the Directorate of Wildlife.

Selous Conservation Program is a pilot program aimed at integrating conservation of the Selous Game Reserve (SGR) by empowering local communities living on the periphery of the SGR to manage the natural resources on those lands and in particular wildlife. Initially, the SCP was aimed at three districts of Morogoro, Songea, and Tunduru regions encompassing sixteen villages, which were key routes and centers for poachers. The geographical coverage of the project has grown since its inception in 1987. Now the project supports community-based conservation initiatives in the game reserve vicinity in Songea, Tunduru, Liwale, Rufiji and Morogoro districts in the buffer zone surrounding the Reserve.

SCP is a joint pilot project between the government of Tanzania and Germany through its technical cooperation agency (GTZ). It involves several administrative authorities, and represents a rich cross-section of society and the local communities, these being government agencies, local representatives, women, men, youth, donors, NGOs, research institutions, farmers, pastoralists, beekeepers, fisher folk, and the private sector.

The overall objective of the SCP is to develop a pragmatic and lasting solution for sustainable conservation of the Selous ecosystem. The project envisages benefiting communities directly with tangible benefits (meat) and financial benefit sharing for them to become committed to protecting wildlife.

³⁶ Masunzu, C. "Assessment of Crop Damage and Application of Non-lethal Deterrents for Crop Protection East of the Selous Game Reserve." In Siege, L. and Baldus, R. (eds.) *Tanzania Wildlife Discussion Paper NR. 24*. Dar Es Salaam. 1998.

³⁷ Krischke, H. et al. "The Development of Community-based Conservation around the Selous Game Reserve." In Leaders-Williams, N. et al. (ed.) *Community-based Conservation in Tanzania*. IUCN Occasional Paper No. 15, 1996.

JUKUMU

In 1996, in Morogoro District, 19 villages in the Gonabis GCA, located directly north of the reserve and incorporated into one of the SGR tourist hunting blocks, joined to administer a wildlife conservation-oriented buffer zone, designating a total of 750km² as a communal wildlife management area. This common area, or Wildlife Management Area, borders Selous in the south, Mikumi National Park in the southwest and is surrounded in the west and northwest by the Uluguru Mountains. The area possesses abundant wildlife resources such as wildebeest, buffalo, impala, zebra, giraffe, warthog and waterbuck among others. The villagers have collectively created an NGO known as JUKUMU (Jumuiya ya Kuhifadhi Mazingira Ukutu), which is charged with running their buffer Zone. The organization is responsible for owning firearms, organizing meat sales and transporting the meat to the market, and signing contracts with hunters.

JUKUMU's administrative body consists of a Baraza, a Central Committee, and a Board of Trustees. The Baraza is made up of three representatives from the now 21 participating villages with a total population of 65,000 people, ten representatives from the Baraza compose the Central Committee and three representatives from the Central Committee are represented on the Board of Trustees. There are various other committees formed from members of the Baraza, charged with addressing topics such as law enforcement, conflict resolution, and education and awareness.

A District Technical Advisory Committee for villages within the Buffer Zone has also been established to facilitate District level involvement in the Program. The committee comprises the District Game, Fisheries, Forestry, Agricultural and Livestock Officers, the District Councillor, elected councillors and representatives of the Protected Areas. The DNRC is responsible for settling disputes and conflicts, developing guidelines for wildlife management and proposing or setting quotas for utilization.

The village assembly is responsible for selecting 6 village game scouts (VGS). The villages pay them small allowances (20,000 TSH/month) and provide rations. The VGS serve in voluntary capacity and are required to collaborate with the District Game scouts and with the SGR staff on anti-poaching activities, sometimes done jointly, and in preparing an inventory of wildlife species and game counts. Most of the project villages have acquired rifles.

The duties of the VGS include:

- Schedule and undertake patrol activities in the village wildlife areas at least 10 days a month;
- Report on conservation activities encountered during patrols;
- Arrest and apprehend poachers;
- Monitor game populations;
- Prepare hunting trails for hunting, camping sites, prevent encroachment and boundary demarcation;

- Supervise resident and tourist hunting e.g. Gonabis GCA;
- Conduct Problem Animal Control;
- Conduct hunting for meat for the village; and
- Carry out fire management

GTZ assisted with the construction of a fully equipped village scout station including an office and dormitory with solar power and radio communication.

Main Economic Activities

A majority of the population in the Selous ecosystem, are small-scale farmers dependent on agricultural production for their livelihood. Agriculture is based on shifting cultivation using traditional methods and technology. The area has no tradition of keeping livestock due to prevalence of tsetse fly transmitted disease however, there is a small population of Maasai pastoralists present in several of the villages. Few alternatives to farming as a livelihood strategy are available. For most households net revenue from farming is small since the remote locations of villages pose a formidable transport and marketing problem. Some of the population's protein requirements come from poultry, and, even prior to the establishment of SCP, a larger proportion from game meat.

The portion of people involved in off-farm salaried employment such as teachers, health workers or under local government is negligible. Some of the people are involved in other secondary economic activities as artisans (building or carpentry), petty traders and casual laborers.

As with most important wildlife areas in Tanzania, SGR is characterized by a high degree of seasonal movement of the large mammal species and wildlife is abundant in the areas outside the reserve boundaries. Elephants move extensively throughout the area and are a source of human-wildlife conflicts in any village where they are found, raiding crops and causing human death.

The growth of the human population in the area has led to an expansion of agricultural activities, which limits wildlife habitat. There is photographic tourism in parts of the northern sector along the Rufiji River and trophy hunting based on 'block' concessions in the other parts of the Selous ecosystem.

During 1995-98, Price Waterhouse³⁸ conducted a study on the economic potential of the SGR and the buffer zone which concludes that the long term economic potential of the buffer zone is high once the villages have been empowered to be partners in safari hunting as envisaged by community wildlife management programs.

Incidents of human wildlife conflict involving crocodile have been increasing over the passed several years, in 1999-2000, 21 people were killed and 50 wounded and 56 livestock were

³⁸ GTZ. *Report on the Internal Evaluation of Project PN 95.2079.2 Selous Conservation Program*, Tanzania. February, 1998.

injured or killed. In 2000 the community applied and received a license to sell crocodile skins, and were designated a quota to hunt 40 per year. Due to the difficulty of hunting crocodile only four skins were sold in 2000. The following year 16 crocodiles were killed and 14 skins were sold at US\$200 per skin.

In February 2000, JUKUMU signed a 10 year concession lease worth US\$200,000 with a tour company known as Tent with a View. The company pays the village an annual fee on top of a US\$5 per person per night fee. All safari companies are requested to contribute towards village development. Although these contributions have helped improved social services, they are not an assured source of funds and do not contribute to a sustainable CBC framework. In Morogoro, the District Council receives 25 percent of the game fees paid for the Gonabis hunting block and the villages receive 12 percent of the Districts portion. There are no provisions for villages in the SCP buffer zones to get a direct share from the hunting royalties and fees. In July 1999, JUKUMU obtained a trophy dealers license which enabled them to market game meat outside the project villages, and especially in poachers markets. Unfortunately, the community did not receive a renewed license in 2000 because they failed to show a profit from the 1999 sales. The villagers are allowed to harvest a quota of game for their own consumption.

Governance

SCP is implemented through existing government structures, and has forged strong links with development and natural resource staff in the districts within which they operate, adopting a team approach to project implementation.

Once some level of trust had been built the program facilitated the development of land use plans in cooperation with the Institute of lands. These plans designated suitable areas for wildlife management. Further, the project encouraged and supported villagers to form community wildlife management committees (CWMC) that would facilitate the management of their wildlife areas.

SCP has supported the rehabilitation or construction of wells, school buildings, dispensaries, roads, bridges and oil and grain mills. Through the project villagers have legal access to game meat for which they have a high preference. Trophy hunting is a major opportunity to earn revenue from wildlife in the buffer zone, although currently villages are not allowed to enter into arrangements with companies carrying out trophy hunting.

Although SCP has not generated large cash returns from consumptive use of the wildlife, the income from wildlife utilization constitutes the largest source of income for the villages. At present, the benefits from sale of meat or hunting revenues to communities are very limited. The villagers derive revenue from the sale of meat from their quota, however, the sale of meat does not generate considerable revenue and sometimes cannot even cover the costs for hunting, let alone fund game scouts and other social development.

The main benefits that have accrued to the communities have been through village self help development projects funded by GTZ or the hunting companies. SCP has ceased its support towards self-help projects as the hunting revenue in the villages has grown. Self-help projects are adapted to the resources abilities of the target group and based on appropriate technology.

Applicants can be the village council, a group of farmers, women, youth or individuals. If the number of applicants is small there has to be demonstrative effect or a secondary beneficial effect for the rest of the community such as the provision of basic services. Each applicant subsidizes 50 percent of the costs, usually in the form of labor, to any project in order to receive funding from SCP. In turn, SCP contributes 50 percent of the material and training costs, and the transfer of knowledge. This funding has been used for infrastructure, social and income generating projects such as construction of dispensaries, schools and rehabilitation of other social services.

In the future it is expected that villages will be able to increase their income by increasing their options to include leasing of their area to tourist trophy hunting or photographic tourism. The essential step in the formation of sustainable CBC is establishing the means for communities to benefit directly from tourist hunting. Through tourist hunting the economic value of species such as buffalo, lion, impala and wildebeest can be realized and generate an enormous amount revenues for communities. It is expected that once the legal framework has been revised to enable communities to benefit from tourist hunting, then communities can begin to enjoy the major economic benefits for responsible management of wildlife resources.

As a result of SCP, wildlife populations have improved. Elephant, lions, and hippos are now being seen close to villages. Elephant poaching in SGR had reduced elephant populations from 100,000 recorded in the 1970s to less than a third of this number. An aerial survey conducted in 1998 showed an increase of the elephants to more than 57,000.³⁹ Due to improve enforcement and patrols, incidences of poaching have fallen. The protective status in buffer zones, in particular south of the reserve, has improved due to community-based wildlife management schemes. However, illegal harvest of wildlife remains still occurs in some areas. Village game scouts were reluctant to arrest relative and friends who were poachers.

Contributing factors towards success:

- WD was supportive: It granted animal quotas to hunt for meat in the proposed WMA, for villagers' consumption and for sale outside. WD also supported JUKUMU in signing a contract with the Tented Camp investor.
- Ward/Divisional administration was also supportive.
- Community Society established a framework for decision-making, cost and benefit sharing and interaction with other institutions
- Community Society created a trusting and transparent relationship with central and district levels of government
- Community Society established clear roles and responsibilities for all players (stakeholders) society/community, local government, central government,

³⁹ Baldus, R. 1994.

- Village ownership—activities were selected and prioritized by the community organization
- Community demonstrated a link between conservation and alleviation of poverty, and medium and long-term economic advantages of conservation
- Community demonstrates the ability to resolve conflict: The 21 villages differ in size and population, and the size of the WMA area assigned to a village is in accordance with these two variables (size and population). In the first instance this kind of distribution brought misunderstandings among villages. At the present these misunderstandings have been settled.

The lodge/hotel is built on land belonging to only one village. In the first instance this village claimed that the accrued revenue should be for the sole village, not for JUKUMU, a conflict arose. After arbitration, everybody agreed that the accrued revenue should be for all village.

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MGORI Forest—Singida—SIDA LAMP Community-Based Forest Management Activity

By Janis Alcorn and Audax Mujuni

Mgori Forest, located in Singida District in the Great Rift Valley, covers 400 km² in the wildlife corridor to the Swaza Game Reserve in neighboring Hanang District. Mgori Forest is an open miombo woodland dominated by *Brachystegia* species. Animals include: list ground pangolin. The forest extends into neighboring districts where communities have not yet established community management regimes.

Five villages (Pohama, Ngimu, Unyamanda, Mughunga and Nduamghanga—each with approximately 250 households, in two different wards) have asserted their control over Mgori Forest in Singida District. The forest and villages are scattered in an area approximately one hour from Singida on poor roads.

Ethnic/pop figures? Crops include maize, sorghum, finger millets, sunflower, cassava, sweet potato, and beans. Beekeeping is also an important economic activity. Items harvested from the forest include: list. Important medicinal plants are traditionally harvested in ways that maintain

the populations. Village lands have been surveyed and the villages are expecting titles, but they have no idea how much land they have—only that it is enough. The land area appeared to be quite extensive and include lots of woodland with small game outside the borders of Mgori Forest itself.

In 1995, these villages resisted the physical demarcation of a new national forest. The Swedish SIDA LAMP project funded external consultants to assist government to find a way to resolve the conflict. The consultants recommended creating a process to grant villages responsibilities for looking after the forest. The District Forest and District Game officers accepted the recommendation and ceased selling licenses to outsiders to harvest timber and kill animals in Mgori Forest. Initially the Director of Forestry, however, did not support the concept. When a new Director of Forestry took office and visited Mgori Forest, the villages' forest management received his approval. Following that decision, the Director of Forestry called a meeting of all Regional Forest Officers to discuss changing forest policy to include provisions for community-based forestry. Donor involvement was central to this shift in policy.

District Forest Officer is expecting to expand the CBFM program in Singida District by 230,000 ha by adding 19 villages in two more divisions—Minyughe Forest—with SIDA assistance. Twenty-two villages around Minyughe Forest received directives from DFO to establish Village Forest Reserves in 2001. Each village council was ordered to establish a committee for forest management, hold a meeting with Village Assembly to explain forest management, identify a Village Forest Reserve, make by-laws, and make a management plan and send it to District Council for approval. The DFO also sent them another directive to establish a Village Environmental Committee and bylaws. Some villages created the two committees but are unsure of the division of roles and responsibilities. As a result, eleven villages took some action ranging from selecting an area for the reserve to even forcing Sukuma households to resettle outside their forest. Only two villages have drawn up by-laws. According to a recent consultant report (Wiley 2001), there is “widespread support” for the idea of establishing Village Forest Reserves and villagers were eager for assistance from Forestry Department.

Sixteen villages in Mughunga Division, next to Mgori, have also begun conserving their forest and are requesting assistance for establishing their forest.

Biophysical

The forest is zoned in three zones. Zone one is the place where villagers can harvest firewood, day to day needs for forest produce, building poles, thatch grasses, mushrooms and vegetables. The second zone provides larger building poles and place for beehives. The third zone (most distant from residences) provides more beehives, timber and wildlife habitat.

The number of “forest offenses” has radically decreased over the past five years since the forests were demarcated, and forest regeneration is evident to the eye.

Both forest and wildlife surveys were done by government in the past year, but the results have not yet been made available to the villages who are hopeful the results will provide the information needed to allow them to harvest timber and wildlife.

Village members complain of wild animal depredation on their crops and wanted assistance with elephants. Until recently, it wasn't safe to walk the road to Nginu at night due to the presence of lions. This road passes through scattered forest outside the borders of Mgori Forest.

Forest fires are controlled now.

Governance

Village forest committees (VFC) were established, Village Forest Management Plans were drawn up, with bylaws limiting forest use approved by District Council (with donor assistance) and the donor assisted each village to demarcate its part of the forest with paint and beacons. Initially there were boundary problems between villages, but over time the boundaries were accepted.

The transparency and working relationship District Council has not been particularly good.

Neighboring villages accept right /power of village to patrol its forest and collect fines according to its own bylaws (not follow neighboring villages bylaws).

Financial management is transparent, but few expenditures have been made, given the small size of their funds. Budgets are discussed in Village Assembly. Village Assembly in one village decided that half of revenue went to village government, other half to VFC for operating expenses.

Role of VFC is to protect forest, collect revenue from culprits, and control forest offtake (similar to FD). Meets once a month. Local offenders are handled by village government in accord with bylaws.

Role of Forest Dept is to provide training, technical advice, make rules about what can be harvested, and approve plans to harvest timber. Role of WD is to handle problem animals, monitor animal populations, set rules about what can be harvested, give quota to village, and establish approved process for selling quotas for hunters.

Subsistence hunting apparently continues in the forested areas around agricultural fields near residences, outside the Mgori Forest boundaries. Village Forest Management Plans allow subsistence hunting of small game such as dikdik and wild pigs that damage crops.

Surprisingly, Mgori Forest has not yet been registered (step 8) but DFO has requested information about how to formalize village rights over Mgori Forest.

Economics/finance

Economic benefits are largely subsistence—medicines, foods, house-building materials, etc plus beekeeping income. The only sources of income for the VNRC are the fines and fees charged visitors. Villages have established bank accounts, but the accounts contain very little money. In one village, funds were used to improve the school.

Game Scouts complained that they are free labor for the forest department, but all agreed that the labor will have been worth the effort. After the village begins to benefit from expected approval for managed harvests of wildlife and timber. The Game Scouts have not received equipment that was supposed to be provided by District Council (with SIDA funding to DC)—boots, etc.

People interviewed said that they were motivated to protect the forest because they were jealous that outsiders were cutting trees and killing animals in their forest.

International and national recognition, including prizes, have provided further incentive to continue to protect the forest.

Conclusion

The establishment of Mgori Forest under Village Reserves in Singida District, wards/division, and reversal of degradation of the forest, was achieved by the following enabling conditions—threat of loss of forest to a new Forest Reserve, donor investment in facilitation of process and training, donor promotion of policy shift toward some form of recognition of villager involvement in forestry, local expectations for future economic benefits from wildlife and timber, and transparent local governance related to enforcement of local bylaws.

Villagers interviewed expressed desire to learn more from other sites. They appreciated the visits from so many parts of the world, but wanted to go out to visit other places themselves. They expressed the opinion that they didn't think they were so successful and wanted to improve by learning from others experiences.

Villagers expressed concern that it was taking a long time to get their forest registered/gazetted and would like to see this happen soon. They would also like guns to balance power with poachers, proper equipment, a better road for visitors to come (increase tourism), and bicycles to reach forest more quickly.

There appears to be no effort to establish a federation to represent village interests to forestry department or District Council.

Review of the forest management plans revealed:

- Most contain an early clause that if the management plan is not respected by the village, the district will repossess the forest. There do not appear to be any clauses describing how this will be judged and the recourse of the village in case of disputes. Experience elsewhere indicates that this disempowers villages.
- The links to other land uses on village lands and the process by which it is decided that forestry is the best land use for the forest area is unclear.
- The 5 plans are very similar which could indicate a boilerplate, top down approach.
- Monitoring and mechanisms to management conflict clauses are not clear.

- Forest-led economic activity is conspicuously absent from these plans—which make them more protection plans than management plans.

The plans are very much oriented towards protection and restoration. There may be a tendency to equate stewardship with protection. Given the absence of mention of economic use and benefits, and given the disempowerment clause mentioned earlier, it appears that these plans may be a way for the forest service to push its agenda but it might not be the agenda of the village. Under these plans one gets the feeling that villagers are subsidizing the forest service (by providing guard and other services).

a) Governance

1. NR committee is viewed as legitimate and transparent.
2. Bylaws are essential.
3. CBNRM incorporates local knowledge of elders and those most knowledgeable about the forest and wildlife. So they are competent and have confidence and trust of others.
4. Imp of capacity building for government agents and committee. Training in bookkeeping and scout work was essential.
5. Enforcement power of state encourages compliance.

b) Economics

1. Expectation of future benefits outweigh costs (labor investment for protection with little financial benefit currently.)
2. Subsistence benefits are valued.
3. Labor requirements must fit into existing workload
4. Recognition and awards motivate people.
5. Love of wildlife and forest motivates some people.
6. View forest as place to learn many things
7. Concern for future generations.

c) Biophysical

1. Protection from cutting and hunting (no new permits being given out by District Council) produces visible regeneration of forest.
2. Access to extensive woodland outside the reserved forest for day to day needs provides alternative source for some forest products.

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TUNGAMALENGA Village—DFID MBOMIPA Community-Based Wildlife Management Activity

By Janis Alcorn and Asukile Kajuni

MBOMIPA—Matumizi Bora ya Malihai Idodi na Pawaga (Sustainable Use of Wild Resources in Idodi and Pawaga)—current purpose “to improve the livelihoods of people in the proposed Lunda-Mkwambi Wildlife Management Area (LMWMA) by establishing sustainable resource management under community authority and responsibility in Pawaga and Idodi divisions” of Iringa District. MBOMIPA is supervised by MNRT and jointly implemented by TANAPA and WD with financial and technical assistance from DFID.

Since 1998, MBOMIPA has developed pilot WMAs in 19 villages located in southern part of the LM Game Control Area (LMGCA), an area of 4,000 km², on southeastern edge of Ruaha National Park in the Rift Valley.

It is semi-arid zone dominated by miombo woodland including *Acacia*, *Commiphora*, *Combretum* and *Brachystegia* species. The population of 40,000 people including Hehe and Bantu speaking people, some of whom were resettled outside Ruaha National Park following its creation in 1964, as well as pastoralists (Il-Parakuyu Masai, Barabaig and Sukuma).

MBOMIPA built on the Ruaha Ecosystem Wildlife Management Project (REWMP) funded by DFID and implemented in collaboration with TANAPA and WD, begun as park planning project in 1988 and added a community wildlife management project (ICDP) in 1993. Moving toward full devolution to local levels for self-sufficient management.

In addition to MBOMIPA, Tungamalenga also participates in TANAPA’s Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIP).

Biophysical

MBOMIPA has implemented an aerial monitoring program for wildlife. A baseline survey was done by REWMP in 1994 and 1995 using Systematic Reconnaissance Flight method. Surveys were done during wet and dry seasons in 1999, 2000, and 2001. Conclusion was that wildlife populations have remained stable within expected levels of annual/seasonal fluctuations, and recommended increased offtake quota for buffalo, kudu, sable, waterbuck, and guinea fowl.

A participatory monitoring system is being tested and improved.

Governance

Village Natural Resource Committee (3 men and 4 women in Tungamalenga) is a committee of the Village Council. Both derive their legitimacy from Village Assembly's direction. VNRC has bylaws and oversees the activities of the Game Scouts. In Tungamalenga, of the seven members, there are three men and four women. After receiving initial training in good leadership and bookkeeping, the VNRC provides regular reports to the Village Assembly, and the Village Council has adopted the same approach for managing and reporting on its budget. Said that transparency makes people more willing to participate and can mobilize more manpower to do projects now. "Now village government is for us, not for leaders or any one person."

In several villages, whole VNRC have been replaced when didn't do their job properly. Village chairs have also been removed, "using group concern for valuable resources to improve governance."

Empowerment is building as people's confidence increases; see more people willing to assume new responsibilities and take leadership. One man has moved from VNRC to become part of village government, more young people and women are assuming roles in VNRC and village government.

MBOMIPA project provide petrol to the District level Cooperative Dept which is responsible for auditing village governments books. This enables the underfunded auditors to visit the MBOMIPA project villages to encourage accountable management of books.

They also reported good two way relationship with district government, and that they receive regular reports on District Council decisions via the Ward Executive Officer.

If there is a local conflict, the village government handles it. If someone complains about village government, then the Ward Executive Officer has the responsibility to help the village resolve the problem.

Until recently the bridge to the District and laterally between villages was the District Steering Committee—of which only 5 of 18 members came from the villages, and which met irregularly, only when a meeting was called by MBOMIPA Project staff. After identification of this institutional weakness by an external reviewer and after exposure to the Jukumu model for village federation, a new CBO has been created that includes representatives from all villages involved in the project. The village-based CBO can call its own meetings anytime.

Despite its weaknesses, the District Steering Committee performed a useful function at an earlier stage of the project when political clout was needed to negotiate with powerful hunters' group that opposed the shift in power toward villages when villages raised prices for hunting in the areas of the Game Control Area under their control. It was felt that a group composed only of villagers would have been unable to negotiate effectively with the powerful hunters interest group.

The new CBO also fulfills some of the procedural requirements in the guidelines (and expected regulations) for establishing Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs). The CBO has a Board of Trustees and operates according to a Constitution that lays out its processes and procedures.

Economics/finance

Value of having village-based institutions that can deal with uncertainty and change—noneconomic but valued. Originally tried selling meat to selves, but decided would earn more money by selling to hunters. Have set high prices (250,000 per buffalo). “Now we see animals as ours, not for Ruaha National Park, or the Wildlife Department, or the world.”

Income from Hunting Block tripled from 281,000 shillings in 1996 to one million shillings in 1999 in Tungamalenga (Murphree annex D). While the levels of income might not seem high if broken down per capita, they are highly appreciated for their contribution to community projects without increasing tax burden to households, effectively releasing money for use for individuals to use for their own family-level projects and problems.

Tungamalenga is one of nine? villages in project area that benefit from sale of hunting licenses. Villages in Pawaga division do not have a hunting block, but rather receive the 25% of TANAPA revenue directed to Iringa District (passed directly to village governments by District).

With assistance from MBOMIPA project, Tungamalenga negotiated a contract with small tourist hotel, capturing more benefits from tourists visiting Ruaha NP.

Only can sell hunting rights to urban Tanzanians, not international safari hunters. If could sell to international hunters, would quadruple their income (Murphree 2000).

Conclusion

a) Governance

1. Government flexibility in guidelines to accommodate experimentation to adapt to local situation and changes. Accepting there is no quick fix or magic bullet.
2. Empowerment is essential and institutional form matters. Institutions need to adapt as situation changes and empowerment proceeds. In power relations demand external involvement, need it (as in SG initially). Providing opportunities for new roles gives room for growth in responsibilities.
3. Financial transparency is very important.
4. Open communication is important.
5. Clear roles & responsibilities, clear bylaws, conflict resolution mechanisms, enhanced local decision-making authority, accountable enforcement of rules are important..
6. Good local leadership makes a difference. Having confidence in leaders is important.
7. NR committee is elected in village assembly to choose those who are committed to purpose and have knowledge necessary to implement their responsibilities.

8. Citizens' trust of government agencies is important. Having local liaison officer helps this to happen.
9. By having one VNRC, avoid duplicate committees for every resource/sector.
10. Training and capacity building for government agents and committee. When understand roles and responsibilities, more confident in performing them.
11. Cross-site visits and discussions are important for building civic alliances across landscape that in turn produce stronger communication with and between local governments/citizens.
12. Division of villages into groups with benefits appropriate to the management regime of neighboring game reserve is important.
13. Spillover to forest control has come from experience with wildlife management.
14. Involving women is important since women harvest many resources.
15. Finding ways to turn losers into partial winners via administrative processes.

b) Economics

1. Benefits outweigh costs, be patient and remain committed and wait for economic benefits. But benefits must come fairly quickly.
2. Noneconomic benefits (group good) balance costs in some cases, especially if frees up private income by reducing taxes for village services (school construction).
3. Market access means easier to see benefits. Tourists and hunters already pass thru village en route to GCA and park.
4. Diversification of benefits matters. Addition of lodge, income from tourists' buying vegetables, beekeeping, etc. add to WL quota sale benefits.
5. Group public good - distribution of benefits reduces threat to resource by local individuals.
6. External support for training and policy advocacy.
7. Worry over environmental degradation and future generations access to wildlife, having water, etc.
8. Togetherness and sincerity.
9. Willingness to participate. Previous experience with TANAPA was positive.

c) *Biophysical*

1. Monitoring biophysical is necessary to determine if biophysical results are achieved.
2. Simple monitoring system best to get feedback in timely and efficient way.
3. Nearness to GCA makes it possible to benefit. Located on the road to GCA and park.

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MBOZI Field Visit – TANZAKESHO

Adapted from Implementation Experience of Capacity 21 TANZAKESHO Program in MBOZI – Mbozi District Council (February 2002) (prepared by Asukile R Kajuni and Hussein Sosovele)

Mbozi district is located in the south-western corner of Mbeya Region, between Latitudes 8⁰ and 9⁰ 12' South of the Equator and Longitudes 32⁰ 7' 300 and 33⁰ 2' 0' East at an altitude of between 900-2750 meters above sea level.

The district is bordered to the south by Ileje district, to the east by Mbeya Rural district at the mark of Songwe River. To the north, Mbozi district extends to Lake Rukwa where it is bordered by Chunya district, whereas to the west it shares borders with Rukwa region and the Republic of Zambia.

It occupies a total area of 9679 km², which is about 967,900 ha of which, arable land is 766,640 ha (79.2%), forest reserves 93,738 ha (about 10%), settlement and other uses 78,322 ha and area covered by water 29,200 ha. It has a tropical type of climate, with two distinct rainy and dry seasons.

The population for the district in the year 2000 was projected at 493,576 people basing on 1988 census (330,282) at a growth rate of 3.4%.

Agriculture and livestock keeping are the main activities, employing about 85% of the population. Other activities include petty trade, bee keeping and fishing.

Administratively, the district is divided into 6 divisions, 26 wards, and 170 villages.

Capacity 21—Tanzakesho Program in Mbozi District Council

Capacity 21 is a new approach established by UNDP governing council in 1993 to help developing countries build their capacity to integrate the principles of agenda 21 into national development. The roots of Capacity 21 lie in agenda 21, globally agreed for achieving sustainable development as the outcome of 1992 Rio Earth Summit which hinge on the “Integration of environment and development into decision making” and “capacity building” for sustainable development.

In Mbozi District, the program advocates the use of Participatory Planning process for sustainable development and covers three divisions (Vwawa, Igamba and Ndalambo) out of six (50%), four wards (Isandula, Igamba, Myunga and Nkangamo) out of 26 (15.4%) and 29 villages out of 170 (17 %).

The geographical area is small but the participatory plans from the villages have been a milestone towards achieving sustainable development in the district. The lessons from this program have been influencing the planning process for the whole district. There is a clear sign of community change of attitude towards participation in development, the indicators for this achievements, include increased community self-help programs and activities including community creativity in solving their problems which before were thought to be the responsibility of the government.

There is a strong interdepartmental integration at the District level and community problems are harmonized by the district core team comprised of technicians and expertise from different disciplines. Implementation of community participatory plans are less costly because there is more community inputs.

Capacity 21 “Tanzakesho” program supportive objectives are:

- Strengthening the decentralization process (Tanzania) through capacity building for sustainable development at district, ward and village levels.
- Piloting on participatory implementation strategies for initiatives on sustainable use of natural resources.

- Support operationalization /implementation of Tanzania vision 2025
- Review planning framework to incorporate principles of sustainable development.
- Advocacy for sustainable development through environmental education and awareness building.

Key Issues for Realization of Overall Objectives: (Capacity 21)

- Participation
- Integration
- Information
- Transparency
- Conservation and protection of natural resources

Governance

The communities in target wards are positive to participate in the village participatory planning process after accepting new ideas to supplement their communal planning skills. The PRA tools used to enhance Community Based Action Plans have increased community awareness on management of the resources they own for development. The project proposals from the villages are consolidated into a district plan more efficiently than before. Realizing that development plans can be managed by villages themselves, the villagers participation in self-help activities has increased. This change of attitude has speeded up the implementation of different development projects. There is a strong two- way communication between the villages, the wards and the district concerning reporting and distribution of the implementation facilities. Transparency has built trust which has increased community participation in different development projects. This fact is realized on the management of micro projects funds supported by UNDP and other development partners. Supporting of development projects has been cheaper because of high contribution from the community. A total of 29 villages governments have undergone training on good governance including information management.

Biophysical

The community participation in community projects range from those dealing with education, health, sanitation, natural resources management and water to social problems associated with witchcraft and gender issues. Conservation and protection of natural environment has been practiced and local community has realized the importance of preserving natural wood through adoption of fuel efficient stoves. Utilization of village bylaws has strengthened process. Interventions in sustainable farming, animal keeping and fishing has been introduced as way to provide important alternative income generation activities that are environmentally friendly.

Economics/Finance

The district has been trying to strengthen the data base information sharing and management in order to assist PRA at the grass root level. Simple data on demography, economic and social services easily understandable by communities will provide an important input in the decision making process for the different economic choices to make. Each village has a development vision for 25 years as a guide for economic development progress. The 25 year development vision for each village will steer local community development strategy and enhance their efforts to eradicate poverty. The district is maintaining village database for planning and decision making.

Achievements

The Mbozi model has realized the following achievements:

Ownership of the program: The operational modality of the Tanzakesho program is through the existing structures, making the district authority to have a big say on it. It has therefore been learned that the no parallel structure system has the highest degree in empowering the district council and creating a sense of ownership and responsibility in managing development programs and or projects. Sustainability and capacity development are ensured in this kind of a situation.

Community empowerment: The community empowerment has increased through the TANZAKESHO program. This is despite the short time of implementation of the program. As a result of planning and visioning, communities have suddenly woken up and they are participating in the development initiatives of their villages.

Change in attitude: There is a general change in attitude and mind-set among members of the community towards village development as related to issues of health, education, water, poverty alleviation, gender relations and environment.

Intersectoral collaboration: The existence of the core team has enhanced teamwork spirit and strengthened inter-sectoral collaboration. Collaboration between Tanzakesho and other programs in the district has also been enhanced. Such programs include Village Travel and Transport program (VTTP) and Agricultural Sector Program Support and ADP(NGO). Cooperation has been pronounced more in the sharing of information and use of professional expertise.

Political support: Involvement of councilors right from the beginning of the program has enhanced acceptance and integration of program activities in the district development process. Implementation progress of program activities is discussed in the district statutory committees.

Linkage with regional and national levels: Representation of Officials from the regional and national level in the launching workshop has created a network between them and the district in as far as program issues are concerned. The Planning Natural Resources, and Local Government Officers from the Regional Secretariat do participate in the district reviews.

Study tours: The study tour to Maswa was both an eye opener and a challenge to the Mbozi district council. It facilitated the privatization of the revenue collection in the district, which has lead to increase in district revenue. The revenue collection has increased tremendously by 115%

(from 989,975 to 2,136,911 per month) let alone other advantages such as removal of running costs during the process.

Following a study tour to Lushoto district, the District Council using its own resources contracted a consultant from Lushoto district to train district TOTs on the simple and appropriate technology on fuel efficient stoves (Mkombozi Stove). Three groups comprising of 22 members in Igamba ward have been trained on the technology where by these groups will be used to disseminate this technology to other community members. 35 fuel saving stoves have been made. The stoves require only one kg. Of fuel wood per day.

Replication of Tanzakesho activities: The district council has allocated TAS 10,000,000 for PRA planning exercises in two more wards. One ward has already been covered by August 2001. The district has planned to replicate Tanzakesho's efforts in the whole district in phases.

Complementarity of efforts: The program has helped build capacity of villagers so much so that that there are now good grounds for any other program/ development actor to come in. In cognizance of community efforts, the German Development Service (DED) has supported the district with Tshs. 5.5 million for construction of 4 classrooms, rehabilitation of 2 water sources, training of trainers for Community Based Health Workers, awareness creation meetings and provision of sports items to youths. Other activities include excavation of a natural pond and construction of spillway in Ukwile village.

Environmental awareness: Environmental awareness has increased among community members. There is also some improvements in awareness on health issues. Implementation of activities related to environmental conservation has started.

Developments not envisaged in the PSD: The program has been a catalyst for many development initiatives. Some of these initiatives have not been envisaged at the programming stage. They include:

- Introduction of fuel saving stoves
- Installation of biogas plants
- Opening of nursery schools
- Improved changes in gender relations
- Addressing health issues
- Addressing witchcraft as a development issue
- Stimulation of interest on income generation activities
- Stimulation of ward bank system

Conditions for Achievements

- Committed facilitation team (district and ward)
- Self evaluation of planning process (SWOT Analysis) conducted during Launch workshop
- Community willingness to change
- Operationalization of the program activities through local government structures
- Utilization of available resources including community knowledge and skills.
- Involvement of communities in all stages of planning process
- Political support at all levels.
- Program objectives are in line with National Development Objectives.
- Study tours
- Spirit of building on what exists

Lessons Learned

- Establishment of non- parallel structure for the program has strengthened sense of program ownership from the grass root level. The community has built more trust in sharing development activities with other stakeholders, and the projects are protected beyond the completion of donor support.
- Positive impact on knowledge dissemination to the villages as a result of different sectors and other donor integration in implementing community based participatory plans.
- Flexibility of the program support to other community felt-needs and specifically about environmental issues.
- Requirement for close follow up and patience in order for the community to understand and adopt new ideas.
- Skills are very important for effective facilitation of the communities to own the development process.
- Building on what is existing, gives the community more confidence in decision making, monitoring and evaluation of their projects.

TANGA COASTAL ZONE—IUCN and IRISH AID Integrated Coastal Management Activity

By Richard Volk

In 1994, with funding and technical assistance from IUCN and Irish Aid, the northern coastal region of Tanzania began a process that is now recognized as one of the most successful examples of community-based natural resources management (CBNRM) in East Africa. The Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Program (TCZCDP, hereafter 'Program') supports collaboration between Central Government, Regional and District authorities, and the approximately 150,000 people residing in 45 villages in the Tanga Municipality, and Pangani and Muheza Districts comprising the Tanga region.

The Tanga region includes 150 km of coastline stretching from the Kenya border to Sadani Village in the southern part of Pangani District. Residents are highly dependent on coastal resources for subsistence and income earning livelihood, and of course overall quality-of-life. The region is endowed with ecologically important and diverse habitats, including coral reefs, seagrass beds, coastal forests, and mangrove forests, and supports economically important commercial and artisanal fisheries.

As a result of preliminary resource assessments conducted in the early 1990s under the auspices of IUCN, the Program undertook a collaborative process of village-level action planning and implementation to address priority resource management issues. The Program adopted a four-step approach of 'listening,' 'piloting,' 'demonstration,' and 'mainstreaming' to achieve an expansion of activities from an initial three pilot villages to today's work in 28 of the region's 45 villages. Principal issues addressed by the Program include overfishing, destructive fishing, mangrove deforestation, coastal erosion, poor government enforcement, and limited options for improving villager livelihoods.⁴⁰

During Phase I (1994-1997), the Program focused on institution and capacity-building for integrated coastal management (ICM) for both district and village governments. Training, technical assistance, and funding was provided to support a collaborative process of Participatory Rapid Assessment (PRA) which resulted in enhanced awareness of socioeconomic and natural resource issues, and the beginning of a sense of Program 'ownership' among stakeholders. Experimentation with 'early actions' was also carried out during this 'listening and piloting' stage of Phase I.

During Phase II (1997-2000), efforts focused on the well-being of people, and were made to modify and replicate successful management actions to villages neighboring the three pilot villages. Actions were taken to develop cost-share arrangements and field-test new practices, including monitoring and enforcement in designated 'management areas'. Considerable effort has been made to facilitate dialogue, consensus-building, and cooperation between villages in the development and legal adoption of Village By-Laws that form the basis for specific NRM-related rules and regulations. In short, the Program worked during this 'demonstration' period to

⁴⁰ Torell, et al., 2000.

address management issues (e.g., fisheries management, mangrove restoration, etc.) that require inter-village collaboration and ecosystem-scale approaches.

The Program is working today on a Phase III (2001-2003) to ‘mainstream’ activities in each of five fisheries management areas extending across the entire region, while seeking to institutionalize the recurrent budgetary resources that will be needed to sustain operations beyond the period of donor support. District and Village governments are being asked to contribute more resources (cash and in-kind) to various services (e.g., monitoring and enforcement) that are seen as essential to the long-term sustainability of management efforts. The following is a discussion of some of the changes and key features related to three broad aspects of the Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Program.

Biophysical

Several notable successes in the management of biophysical resources of the region can be attributed to the Program during its first seven years of operation. Perhaps most significantly, there appears to be widespread perception among villagers that the overfishing and destructive fishing practices of the past are beginning to be brought under control. There is even some quantitative evidence of a 30 percent increase in the number of reef fish now inhabiting closed coral reef areas.⁴¹ The Program and its stakeholder communities have accomplished this with the creation of management areas that unite adjacent villages in five sub-regions under a commonly agreed set of management goals, objectives, and actions. Rules and regulations for the management areas have been developed through grassroots discussions among all interested stakeholders, and approved sequentially through Village, District, and Central Governments. All of this is quite significant, considering that 95 percent of fishing in Tanzania is conducted by artisanal fishers mainly along inshore areas of the coast.⁴²

The Tanga region was formerly known to suffer heavily from dynamite fishing, with 70 percent of coral significantly damaged and another 10 percent beyond recovery.⁴³ Although it will take several years (or decades in some cases) for full recovery, the fact that a decades-old fishing practice has been almost completely eliminated in a little more than two years of community-based action planning, has bolstered local enthusiasm and support for the five management areas. In addition, certain gear types and practices (e.g., seine net fishing; poison fishing) were also reported by villagers during this assessment to be eliminated or significantly curtailed.

There are now 28 out of 45 villages participating in five management areas that encompass virtually the entire coast of the region. These management areas are supported by Village By-Laws, and three of these now have further provision for closed areas within which no marine harvest is allowed. There is anecdotal evidence (villager perception) that fish stocks have increased, and that so has the health of coral reefs within the management areas. It is believed

⁴¹ Torell, et al., 2000.

⁴² TCMP, 2001b.

⁴³ Torell, et al., 2000.

that recovery from coral bleaching associated with the 1998 El Nino event, was faster and more complete within the closed areas.⁴⁴

Villagers in several communities have re-planted areas where mangroves had been destroyed by overharvest or intentional destruction (as by hotel developers wanting to open up visual access to the sea). Several thousand mangrove seedlings have been planted with reported survival rates on the order of 90-95 percent. These actions have helped to alleviate coastal erosion (e.g., Tongoni Village), and to create regional awareness of the ecological services that mangroves provide.

Working to consolidate that regional environmental awareness, the Program has involved community members in the ongoing monitoring and enforcement efforts associated with the management areas. Volunteer monitoring of basic indicators has proven helpful in maintaining village enthusiasm and support for the new rules and regulations within their management area. Villagers indicate that they gain satisfaction from being part of a regional effort to manage the environment. Monitoring is conducted on simple indicators such as number of dynamite blasts, number of mangrove seedlings planted, and the villagers have also learned how to do basic line and belt transects on coral reefs. Data on fishing effort and catch are more difficult to obtain. Continued involvement of District and Central Government will be important for sustaining key monitoring and enforcement functions.

Socioeconomic

As already mentioned, the region's general environmental awareness has increased significantly with activities of the Program. Participating villagers, members of neighboring villages, and district government staff are now more knowledgeable of basic coastal ecology and the key issues that can be dealt with through collective action. This awareness has been the impetus for at least one neighboring village to begin the action planning process on its own after seeing the progress made by other villages.⁴⁵ The assessment team both observed and heard from various stakeholders of today's much higher level of overall cooperation and trust between villages and with district government officials.

The Program has focused much of its community work on increasing the number of women involved in the action planning and village-level decision-making process. The assessment team heard from several women who indicate increased income opportunities as a result of training provided to women on such activities as seaweed cultivation and organic vegetable farming. Participants of a three-day workshop in August 2000 confirmed that women have become more independent as a result of these developments, are better able to provide for their families, and have become much more integrated into village decision-making.⁴⁶ Other socioeconomic outcomes reported at the same workshop include the following:

- Increased self-dependence and confidence in the ability to implement actions

⁴⁴ Makoloweka., S. Personal communication, 2002.

⁴⁵ Torell, et al., 2000.

⁴⁶ Torell, et al., 2000.

- Increased capacity to influence decisions on resource use and solve coastal issues
- More equal resource ownership
- Increased village security as a result of militia training and equipment (for marine enforcement)
- Increased confidence and transparency in identifying wrong-doers among villagers.⁴⁷

Although the overall fish catch has increased in the region, fisher's incomes have declined by almost 30 percent in real terms between 1996 and 2000.⁴⁸ This reflects a reported 20 percent decline in the price of fish during the same period. Nevertheless, it is the perception among villagers and district officials that the overall nutritional and educational status of the region has increased in recent years. Greater fish catch is purportedly responsible for fewer malnourished people. While greater income and the fact that the seine fishery has been made illegal, which formerly employed large numbers of school age children, has resulted in more children attending school and thus a higher educational standard.⁴⁹

Governance

Clearly, the Program has achieved a new level of capacity by villagers to undertake various resource management actions. Capabilities in issue identification and assessment, action planning, implementation, monitoring, and enforcement have greatly empowered local communities and expanded their involvement in natural resources management. They are learned many valuable problem identification and solving skills that can be applied to issues unrelated to NRM. Moreover, villagers generally feel that district officials consult with them more frequently and meaningfully on topics of importance to local communities, and that the foundation for a strong partnership for co-management of the resource has been built.

- Critical need for baseline information (on natural resources and human use practices) to inform bylaw process
- Community members perceived that there were serious problems—most notably declining fish stocks, beach erosion, agricultural pests
- Communities had a tradition of cooperation and collective action (Nyere's socialism)
- Local government already established with democratic principles (democracy vs. Authoritarian); level of democratic decision-making
- Community members felt empowered by greater integration into political (and economic) system

⁴⁷ Torell, et al., 2000.

⁴⁸ Torell, et al., 2000.

⁴⁹ Torell, et al., 2000.

- Coastal activities are trying to take advantage of local government reform process which has created Village Environmental Management Committees
- Participatory development of village bylaws empowers local people to become involved in decision-making and establish greater sense of ownership over resources
- Village bylaws reflect the values and interests of local community members
- Village bylaws clarify the roles between local, district, regional, and national authorities
- Match scale, complexity, and capacity in project design; starting small (both geographically and on only 1-2 priority issues) is important for success
- It helps when villagers see themselves as part of a larger (regional) program
- Transparency in program decision-making is important, especially on key matters such as setting objectives and funding decisions
- Allow local stakeholders to set priorities (within context of environmental assessments and awareness raising), but then respect those decisions and work within the grassroots decision-making process to make incremental adjustments (if needed)
- Recognize that visual/measurable improvements will not be achieved in short-term; will require ‘scaling up’ to ecosystem-scale and take 2-3 years in many cases; human behavioral change at a large scale (e.g., eliminate dynamite fishing) will likely take just as long.
- Participatory monitoring (coral reefs, mangrove re-planting, beach erosion, dynamite blasts, etc.) should be designed to be practical and focus on easy indicators
- Some indicators (e.g., fishing effort and catch) may be highly desirable but not achievable under existing institutional/legal framework or short timeframe
- Recognize that voluntary monitoring helps sustain community interest and support
- Coral reef closures; dynamite fishing; mangrove restoration; coastal erosion
- Project size and complexity must always be considered in relation to human capacity.
- An ecosystem scale approach is essential for some but not all types of problems.
- Action planning should be issue-based with specific actions identified regarding implementation, monitoring, reporting, and adapting the plan over time
- Start small, in pilot villages carefully selected for villagers’ enthusiasm, perception of degraded resource, and good relations with government authorities
- Focus on only 1-2 issues initially with clear, achievable objectives and actions

- When ‘scaling up’, bring neighboring villages into the process at the earliest possible opportunity; they should be involved in issue identification and objective setting
- Skilled facilitation by external team is most ideal (to avoid perception of bias)
- Village action plans should be officially adopted and attain legal status
- Problem analysis stage (using PRA) is critical and a core feature; villagers must be meaningfully involved in issue identification and analysis
- Process and product of issue identification matters; build capacity and ownership throughout these steps
- Regularly scheduled self-assessment meetings (both short-term and medium-term) should be conducted at all levels (village, district, regional); cross-program visits with similar CBNRM programs elsewhere should be conducted
- It is critical to understand local stakeholders interests, conflicts, and leadership (both formal and informal); don’t focus solely on issues; get stakeholders to go beyond describing their ‘position’ on an issue, and discuss their true ‘interest’ in an issue
- Recognize that capacity-building is a multi-dimensional activity focused on (at a minimum) ‘professional skills,’ ‘ICM practice skills,’ and ‘technical skills’

Socioeconomic/Financial

- Socioeconomic and cultural homogeneity
- Degree of dependence on the resource; people must perceive/experience progress
- Allowances (for travel and meals when visiting other villages) seen an important incentive; important to not create sense of expectation and dependency on this form of funding
- Begin assessing/implementing options for financial sustainability of project components well before donor funding is terminated
- Give meaningful design/investment consideration to poverty alleviation as an essential component of CBNRM
- Provide more support for youth involvement and environmental education
- Recognition programs for environmental leadership (men, women, youth)
- For reef closure areas, have villagers identify priority sites based on ecological criteria, feasibility of restoration, and socioeconomic consequences of closure
- Combine NRM with quality-of-life, alternative livelihood, and basic needs issues for sustained effort

- Sometimes efforts don't translate directly as expected; increased fish catch did not equal increased income due to decline in the price of fish during period
- Alternative income strategies must be considered and supported (e.g., seaweed cultivation, organic farming, etc.)
- Tanga project achieved increased nutritional and educational standards for region as a whole
- Do not undertake action planning unless it is clear who will fund implementation; there is a danger of losing trust and commitment from key stakeholders
- One villager claimed that he now uses action planning to set goals/objectives and actions within his household
- Non-market values? (value of preserving resource for their children?)
- CBNRM has created demand for continued public services (e.g., patrol costs are increasingly born by District Government)

Conclusions

- Process must be genuine to the concerns of the local people
- Community perceptions of progress will influence their further behavior
- Visible or measurable improvement in the resource is thus critical
- Project should strive to establish and maintain a set of physical features (e.g., marker buoys, community signage, environmental information kiosk, etc.)
- Community members must see that there is widespread adherence to rules and fair and equitable enforcement
- Community members must believe that they are now empowered to manage their own resources

Additional Questions

- To what extent does distance from district government (and thus transportation and communication issues) affect CBNRM?
- To what extent does the existing degree of general community development affect progress (i.e., housing, services, etc.)

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CULLMAN AND HURT COMMUNITY WILDLIFE PROJECT: A Community—Private Sector Partnership, Monduli District, Tanzania

Prepared by Daniel Evans, USAID/REDSO, Nairobi, Kenya

General Situation—ecology, population/constituency, land use/economy, threats to resources, history of activity, other major donor programs, any other important info.

Tanzania has a well established, worldwide reputation for its incredible wildlife and national parks. Tourist revenues are an important part of national and local economies. However, some predictions say that current trends in agricultural expansion and population growth will threaten Tanzania's wildlife in the future. The government realizes this emerging problem and is actively seeking ways to ensure that local populations have economic incentives to help conserve parks and wildlife.

The Cullman and Hurt Community Wildlife Project was initiated in 1990 by Joseph F. Cullman, a US businessman and private philanthropist interested in hunting and conservation, and Robin Hurt Safaris LTD, a private hunting company. The project is based in Arusha and operates in seven hunting blocks used by Robin Hurt Safaris, which are part of the larger Serengeti – Manyara ecosystem. The project is a legal entity under Tanzanian law that seeks to assist rural Tanzanian communities that live in wildlife areas, particularly hunting blocks, to receive benefits from wildlife and the natural environment in which they live. Most of the people living in or adjacent to the hunting blocks are extremely poor, subsistence agro-pastoralists with limited options for earning a cash income.

The project aims to create a sense of stewardship and direct ownership in rural communities for wildlife and other natural resources in areas around their villages that they have traditionally controlled in spite of unclear legal tenure. Its goal is to ensure that local communities, representing the 23 villages associated with Hurt Safaris' hunting blocks, benefit from tourism hunting that occurs on land they consider theirs. The project also seeks to encourage villages to promote conservation on their lands, which includes the sustainable use of the wildlife and habitat.

More specifically, the project aims are (from J.E. Clarke, 2001):

- To ensure that communities benefit from wildlife in terms of money, employment, food and community projects;
- To promote and encourage village anti-poaching programs;
- To cooperate and help the Wildlife Division in all its conservation ideas;
- To discourage illegal, unselective and wasteful use of wildlife, such as commercial meat poaching and particularly the use of snares;
- To involve local communities in the promotion of wildlife and habitat conservation through sustainable utilization of renewable resources; and
- To help local communities understand and manage wildlife in a sustainable manner and to take on responsibility for its stewardship.

The project works to achieve these aims by financing local development projects with hunting based fees, and by organizing anti-poaching patrols and educational activities in local villages. The efforts are successful because they create direct incentives for local people as well as a sense of responsibility and control.

Biophysical

The project works in three zones: Niensi, Mlele-Rungwa, and Makao-Burko. Each area is fairly hilly Acacia woodland with scattered open grasslands and sparse settlement of Maasai communities. Communities live largely from their livestock, supplemented by small scale agriculture, fishing, honey collection. Annual rainfall of only 400 to 900 mm limits agricultural

potential. Tourist hunters generally shoot lion, leopard, buffalo, hippo, zebra, and a wide variety of antelope.

Wildlife moves through the hunting blocks regularly each year, as part of a large migrational route. Since the animals are present for only a portion of each year, monitoring their populations must be done on a much larger scale than the villages are capable of organizing and maintaining. Because of the size of the overall area, and the natural fluctuations in animal numbers it is very difficult to effectively measure changes in animal populations, and thus to determine the impact of either regular hunting or any potential reduction in poaching.

Tanzania has five levels of conservation or resource use areas, ranging from totally protected national parks and conservation areas, to open areas that allow multiple uses and often contain villages. Hunting blocks are primarily located in game reserves and game controlled areas, which represent intermediate levels of use. The Wildlife Conservation Act permits no settlements in parks, conservation areas, and game reserves.

Poaching has historically been a problem in the area, due primarily to local hunters killing animals for their consumption, as well as larger scale commercial hunters. The traditional use of metal snares is particularly wasteful as many non-target animals are killed, and others go to waste. Recent Rwandan refugees have increased local poaching problems too.

Governance

Local communities decide each year how they would like the funding to be used for their village. Actual management of the funds is done by Hurt Safaris as a service to the villages, and as a way to ensure that the funds are used in an accountable way. The national government is planning to create wildlife management areas that would be completely managed by local communities. While this concept has not yet been implemented, the C & H project has laid the foundation for it to be a success in the seven hunting blocks.

Meetings in each of the 23 villages involve local Village Chairmen, Village Secretaries, as well as many of the village men and women. Ward Executive Officers, who represent the national government, often attend too.

Under recently proposed, but not yet enacted legislation, game reserves would be reclassified as wildlife management areas and be fully controlled by local institutions. However, this legislation is controversial because it would shift payment of hunting fees from the national government to local communities, depriving the national treasury of significant revenues.

Economic/Financial

Financing for the community development projects comes from a 20 per cent surcharge on all direct hunting fees for animals taken near the villages. Private donations are also sought to cover additional management fees, as well as all the anti-poaching program. These donations are often made through a non-profit organization, Game Conservancy USA, which is based in the United States and thus provides tax deductions for Americans.

Management costs are completely covered by donations, either in the form of staff time, materials, and office space from Robin Hurt Safaris, or through special donations raised to support the project. US based partners, particularly the Game Conservancy USA, help by providing tax deductions for American donations.

The amount of funds available for each village are very small on a per capita basis, but they are significant resources for many badly needed community projects. Rough \$1,500 to \$4,000 is raised for each village annually. These funds are used to purchase materials for schools, teachers' houses, and health facilities. Some livestock and water projects are also funded, depending on each village's priorities for the year. Some projects are also paid for via contracts for the delivery of specific services. Villages often provide additional labor to help with construction projects. In some cases the project co-funds construction projects with the Ministry of Education.

A variety of wildlife damage crops and threaten livestock. Villagers are not compensated for any of their losses, but the Wildlife Division does make an effort to control dangerous animals, particularly elephants, buffalo, and lions.

Conclusion

The basic rationale behind the project is that the conservation of Tanzania's wildlife and natural areas depends on:

- Communities living with wildlife must receive tangible benefits from that wildlife.
- Communities living in wildlife areas are willing to have more responsibility to conserve and manage the wildlife and natural resources in their area.

From 1991 to 2001 a total of 119 projects were funded in 23 villages. The majority of projects were for school facilities (47), water projects (28), or health dispensaries (16). In many cases these projects provided services that would generally be the responsibility of the district government

Governance

1. Government policy has recently been enacted that requires all commercial hunting companies to conduct community conservation projects and to initiate their own community based anti-poaching efforts. The Cullman & Hurt project not only began this well before they were required to, they also established an innovative fee mechanism combining a surcharge on hunting fees and private donations.
2. Communities do not have clear, legal title to their lands, which creates fears over their ability to control and protect the resources they depend on. Providing clear ownership is required to increase community ownership.

Economic

1. The project has successfully financed a wide variety of community level projects in each of the participating 23 villages, including many education related projects, such as building

schools and teachers' houses, health and water projects, as well as increased food security during time of severe drought and food shortages.

2. The project has developed reliable and sustainable revenues through surcharges on hunting.
3. The project's success depends entirely on the continues revenues generated by sport hunters, most of whom come from America, Europe, and Arabian countries.
4. Private donations and conservation grants are used to maintain anti-poaching efforts.
5. Dependence on limited donations restricts the amount of anti-poaching and educational activities that can be conducted.
6. Dependence on outside donations threatens the sustainability of the project.
7. Hurt Safaris LTD currently manages all the funds. Over time, local governance and financial management skills should be developed to increase local ownership and control.
8. Most hunting fees go directly to the Government of Tanzania, while other tourist revenues are often under the direct control of local communities. Consequently, communities don't generally support hunting or want to encourage it.

Biophysical

1. Anti-poaching activities have successfully involved local communities, and seem to have had an impact both by reducing poaching and by increasing general public awareness about conservation.
2. The overall size and complexity of the ecosystem, which entails extensive migration routes for all the wildlife, makes establishment of a reliable monitoring program extremely difficult. Thus hunting quotas are currently set somewhat arbitrarily. More systematic monitoring of game stocks and hunting off take should be established and maintained.

Key Contacts for the Project

Jay Blumer, Managing Director of Robin Hurt Safaris, Arusha

Sally Capper, Project Director of the C&H Community Wildlife Project, Arusha

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ROBANDA Community—Private Tour Operator Partnerships: Serengeti Ecosystem, Tanzania

Prepared by Daniel Evans, USAID/REDSO, Nairobi, Kenya

General Situation—ecology, population/constituency, land use/economy, threats to resources, history of activity, other major donor programs, any other important info.

Overall policies of the Tanzanian government and the Tanzania National Parks support the concept that communities living adjacent to parks should share in some of the benefits of the park or protected area. However, there are no clear guidelines for community rights or established procedures for agreements between TANAPA, villages, and private tour companies. The concept of creating clearly defined Wildlife Management Areas that would be largely under the control of local communities has been proposed, but not yet developed to implement more effective community based natural resource management programs in the country.

The Robanda village borders the west side of Serengeti National Park (SNP) on two sides at the Ikoma Gate. It is located within the major Serengeti ecosystem migration route for much of the area's wildlife. The Serengeti ecosystem encompasses a very large area, which includes all of Robanda and surrounding areas. The ecosystem supports incredible amounts of wildlife that move regularly through the area. Consequently, the people have an established history interacting with wildlife in the area. When the Serengeti National Park was initially created local people were told they could no longer use areas they had traditionally relied upon for grazing, wood and other resources. This created considerable animosity toward the park service, which the creation of community based activities is now beginning to dispel.

The people of Robanda are largely agro-pastoralists who have lived in the area for many generations. The landscape is one of open rolling hills and acacia thorn woodlands. Agriculture occurs on relatively few and scattered plots, and does not dominate the landscape. Historically, the people of Robanda fought with local Maasai tribes over cattle. They also were traditional hunters, who were thus classified as poachers when the Serengeti National Park was established. Today, cattle raiding no longer occurs and the SNP physically separates the Robanda from their neighboring Maasai communities. Hunting or poaching is also now generally limited to the quotas of animals that the villagers are told they are allowed to hunt.

Biophysical

Village lands are used primarily by the local community for subsistence farming on small plots near the village, for grazing livestock, firewood collection, and for occasional hunting, either through government quotas or poaching.

While poaching was once very common within the community, there is now a general awareness that wildlife has greater value through tourism and commercial sport hunting. As a result, most people felt that poaching was no longer a major problem. In fact, there is interest in selling their subsistence hunting quotas to sport hunters to get more revenues. Poaching, often through the use of wire snares, still occurs, but much less frequently than in the past.

The area's most important feature is being part of the larger Serengeti ecosystem, which in addition to its physical proximity to the SNP, gives the village excellent opportunities to benefit from tourism.

Governance

The general governance structure of rural villages in Tanzania consists of a Village Assembly, which includes everyone in the community. From the Assembly a Village Council is elected to represent the village, particularly to the national government. Subcommittees are formed from the council for Finance and Planning, and for Natural Resource Management. The Council may also employ Village Game Scouts, who are responsible for controlling poaching on village lands.

Robanda, through its village officials, directly negotiated several agreements with tour operators to use village land. Some degree of outside facilitation from an experienced partner might help Robanda strike a better deal, as well as provide opportunities for training local officials.

The Village Council and its sub-committees currently control how the funds are allocated, so the broader village does not have full disclosure on the use of the funds. Communication with the general population is based on irregular annual meetings, so there is opportunity for improved community involvement.

Economic/Financial

While village lands have a variety of natural resources, revenues are generated from only a few uses by outsiders, including charging the SNP for sand, as well as charging tourist companies for hunting, camping, water, and general access fees. The village council is also able to generate a modest fee from local people for the use of the community grain mill.

The village currently has no direct mechanism to monitor actual visitor use of the various camps. Operators record visitation numbers, collect camp charges, and advise village officials of their revenues.

Robanda village and SENGO, a private tour company, have had a business partnership since 1993, under which Robanda provided land to SENGO to set up a campsite. Robanda then receives a fee for each camper that uses the site. Several other companies have also set up campsites under similar agreements with the community.

Conclusion

Robanda has definitely benefited from its community based natural resource management activities, primarily from the revenues it has received from tour companies using village land. The revenues have benefited the community through improved primary schools, health services, water projects, and general food security. Overall, the village is distinct from other communities in that many of the houses and shops are constructed of cement with metal roofs, rather than the more common traditional mud and dung structures with thatch roofs.

Governance

1. The Robanda Council currently manages all revenues with limited input from the broader community. Increased and more formal dialogue would increase the transparency of how funds are used, and create greater awareness within the village of the benefits associated with the area's wildlife and other natural resources.
2. Support from an outside organization could help local officials and the community at large improve their governance systems and management skills.
3. Overall, the village has been able to develop appropriate mechanisms for contracting with private tour companies and have used the revenues for the benefit of the community.

Economic

1. Being able to sell some of the villages hunting quota would be one source of additional revenues. Villagers are now more interested in maximizing their return on natural resources than consuming traditional game meat they are allowed to hunt.
2. Physical infrastructure, like bore holes and the grain mill, provide some revenue for the village, which is importance for regular maintenance.
3. Charging camping and access fees provides significant revenues that have improved the village's schools, water sources, and other infrastructure.

Biophysical

1. Robanda is fortunately located near the border of the SNP, with good access roads. This somewhat unique geographic positioning allows it to attract private tour companies, and thus to benefit from tourism.
2. A clear demarcation of the land would avoid confusion over which land is under village management, and help them patrol the area more effectively.
3. A wildlife monitoring program would be of benefit to the community, especially to track the impact of tourist hunting and poaching. However, considering the magnitude of the ecosystem and the mobility of the animals, any monitoring efforts would have to be developed with the SNP.

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Manyara Trustland

By A. R. Kajuni and Robin Martino

Background

From 1992 the government of Tanzania started to implement the World Bank and IMF structural adjustment programs that necessitated a lean and efficient government and a tight fiscal policy. Consequently most of the commercial ventures once managed by quasi government systems through hundreds of parastatal organizations were divested from government ownership. Under the new economic policy these parastatal organization were expected to operate in an open market scenario where market forces determine their survival and not government subsidy. Therefore by 1995 the government advertised all the 14 cattle ranches managed by the National Ranching Company (NARCO) including Manyara ranch for sale to private buyers.

Manyara ranch consists of approximately 45,000 acres and occupying a critical location in the northern portion of the Kwa Kuchinja wildlife corridor situated between Tarangire and Lake Manyara National Parks in northeast Tanzania. In 1954 the Esilalei Maasai elders gave up their rights to the land in order to benefit from improved grazing lands and additional water sources that would result from the commercial ranching operation. In the late fifties and early sixties the ranch was sold to another private owner who restricted the Maasai's use of the ranch. In 1974 upon the death of the ranch owner, the ranch was transferred to the Tanzania government. Under the government ownership, the ranch had been managed unsuccessfully as a commercial ranch.

The ranch occupies a critical location as the only open wildlife corridor between the two protected areas and the most important area providing reserve fodder and water to local Maasai pastoral communities resulted in joint expressions of concern from local communities and conservation groups. These expressions of concern were directed at the government to withdraw Manyara ranch from the market and alternative arrangements for its management be discussed. Several consultative discussions were initiated at local and national level to try to make sure that Manyara ranch was not sold to private commercial ranchers. The outcome was the creation of a Tanzania Conservation Land Trust (TCLT), the first of its kind in East Africa, which assumed management responsibility from the Government of Tanzania under a **99 year** lease from July 2000. The Trust is responsible for managing the ranch to benefit wildlife using the ranch as well as for the neighboring pastoral communities (mostly from Esilalei village—including Oltukai sub-village) during extended dry seasons or droughts.

Location

Manyara ranch hereinafter referred to as Manyara Trust Land is located in Monduli district in an area of high diversity that plays a very significant role in the conservation of the entire southern Maasai Steppes. It is located in a semi arid environment in the Rift Valley rain shadow and receives an average of between 400 – 500 mm per annum. It is located in Esilalei village (including Oltukai sub-village) and the main ethnic group in the district is the pastoral Maasai. The population of Monduli District is estimated at 141,896 growing at a rate of 3.80% per annum. In recent years there have been some migration of other ethnic groups mostly Wa-

Arusha and WaMeru into Monduli and have introduced agriculture involving cultivation. The introduction of agriculture in these marginal areas has attracted land speculators some of whom acquire very large tracks of land and sell or lease them for commercial bean farming. Such moves result in clearing of large tracts of land that become barren and unsuitable for either livestock or wildlife grazing.

Partnership Options For Resource-Use Innovations (Pori) Project

Tarangire and Lake Manyara National Parks have been receiving support from USAID Tanzania through the AWF PORI project since **1998**. AWF has provided technical assistance to the National Parks in the areas of law enforcement, fire management, infrastructure (road building, staff houses, etc.) tourist services, general management plan development, and mapping and boundary demarcation. AWF has also supported community -based conservation in the region through the establishment of village land use plans, by-law formulation and interpretation, joint conservation business ventures with the private sector, and training in CBC programs. USAID Washington has provided additional support to AWF for activities in the region, including support for the establishment of the Tanzania Land Conservation Trust. WWF has been active in wildlife research and monitoring in the National Parks, the Kwa Kuchinja corridor and other dispersal areas key to the survival of the two parks as protected areas.

AWF has assisted two local natural resource conservation NGO's Inyuat e Maa (MAA) and MBK (highlands?). MAA is comprised of Maasai pastoralists that work with communities to help them identify, determine, promote, and manage their shared interests related to natural and cultural resources through land, pastoral, wildlife, and tourism management. MAA has become a strong partner and has begun to provide assistance to the two villages (Esilalei and Oltukai) surrounding Manyara ranch.

Biophysical

The Manyara ranch lands function as a critical wildlife migration corridor and dispersal area. The once abundant corridors linking Tarangire and Manyara National Parks have been substantially reduced due to scattered rural settlements, commercial and subsistence farming. Only three key wildlife movement corridors still remain, one of which is Kwa Kuchinja corridor that makes up Manyara Trust Lands.

The ranch faced numerous threats due to poor management under government control such as, illegal tree felling for charcoal production and construction, illegal grazing, wildlife poaching, and the illegal sale of commercial cattle breeding stock and ranch assets. The trust via the steering committee is taking immediate actions to control illegal activities on the land. These actions include setting up the management team and working closely with village leaders to develop an interim pastoral grazing plan that will allow an appropriate level of grazing prior to the development of a more comprehensive pastoral grazing management plan.

Governance

TLCT constitution outlines the roles of a Board of Trustees and a community steering committee. The Board has been established and is comprised of the following members:

Community representative from Esilalei village
The LAIBON – a traditional Maasai leader/traditional healer
The local Member of Parliament
The Director of Wildlife
The Director General of TANAPA
Representative GEF/UNDP Cross Border Biodiversity Project rep.
Representative from WWF
Representative from AWF
Representative from the business community
Representative from a local conservation consultancy

The steering committee serves as an advisory body made up of community members elected by their respective village assemblies. The role of the steering committee is to:

- Advise the Trustees on management of land and immovable property acquired by the TLCT
- Provide liaison between the Trustees, surrounding local communities and other stakeholders
- Discuss and resolve issues that arise, such as land use, business ventures and other activities that are compatible with the management plan.

Training and strengthening plans for the steering committee include:

- Exchange visits to the other communities (e.g. Ololosokwan)
- Study tours to African countries and eventually to the US
- On site workshops and seminars
- Visits by other groups and interactions and exchange of experiences
- Management training at local institutions

Economic

The land management decisions the Trust decides to take will determine the potential for gains. There are several ways in which the operation of Manyara Trust Lands could provide benefits to the local communities, some of which are economic and others which are in non-economic ways. Access for neighboring communities to the water supplies provided through dams, bore holes and water tanks as well as grazing areas will be important to maintain support and good relationships. Options that include wildlife related and/or cultural tourism have a high likelihood of being profitable due to the Ranch's location on route to several of the country's best known National Parks. The Ranch has the opportunity to be more flexible than the neighboring protected areas in the range of services it can offer such as night drives, walking safaris, etc. Relationships with the private sector can benefit the communities economically in a variety of ways.

The inclusion of local community support is essential to the success of the Manyara Trust Land concept of preserving wildlife corridors and dispersal areas. Local communities will have to realize tangible benefits from the Trust Lands if the concept is to be successful. Creative strategies for community benefit sharing along with the perpetuation of sustainable levels of traditional pastoral grazing will ensure a level of trust necessary to secure a long term commitment to conservation while preserving a traditional way of life for local people. The Manyara Trust Lands location in a semi arid environment characterized by low rainfall precludes any profitable agricultural undertakings. The area is suited for livestock production and wildlife management. Many of the protected areas in East Africa are situated in these environments. The trust concept therefore provides the only rational use of the ranch.

Annex F. Summary of Key Observations from Selected CBNRM sites

Site/Activity	Community	Area (ha)	Powers Devolved	Economic Benefits	Other Key Results	Best Practices
Tanga Coastal Zone Management	45 villages	Several districts	Empowered village environmental management committees to draft bylaws in support of community led action planning, monitoring and enforcement	Increased nutritional and education standards; increased fish catch; expansion of alternative income generating enterprises	Improved protection of fisheries; curtailed dynamite fishing, poisoning; replanting of mangroves; reduced shoreline erosion	PRA used to involve villagers and to build consensus; regular self-assessments, cross-learning meetings, exchange visits, equitable law enforcement, demarcated area with physical markers, signs
Ngarambe Community-based Wildlife Management	2,500 villagers	22,579	Policing, hunting, enforcement	Meat harvest, infrastructure development	Poaching reduced, wildlife populations stabilized, relations improved with government agents	Village created NRM Committee, sanctioned by village council; training in book-keeping; transparent accounting, equitable benefit distribution (of meat), participatory land use planning; NRMC employs game scouts
Jukumu	65,000 in 19 villages	75,000	Acquired permits to hunt; revenue sharing agreement	Game harvest; lease revenues	Improved relations with government	Used NGO as a forum to build consensus, and for joint decision-making
Mgori Forest	5 villages or about 1250 households	40,000	Patrol forest, fine poachers, draft and enforce bylaws	Small Community Fund; increased access to forest for subsistence needs; anticipate approval for harvesting of wildlife and timber	Government ceased issuing permits to outsiders for hunting and timber cutting; poaching reduced; fires stopped; forest regenerated	Forest zoning to guide use; village forest guards legitimized; resolved boundary disputes between villages and marked boundaries; book-keeping training, Forest Service provides training and planning assistance

Site/Activity	Community	Area (ha)	Powers Devolved	Economic Benefits	Other Key Results	Best Practices
Mbomipa (wildlife and forest management)	40,000 farmers and pastoralists	400,000	Patrolling, quotas for game harvest, draft bylaws, set fines and licenses	Funds used for local development projects; diversification of sources of incomes and benefits (lodges, wildlife, beekeeping, food sales to tourists)	Poaching reduced, wildlife stabilized, increased off-take of wildlife for local community; increased trust in government agencies	Cross-site visits; involved women; Village assembly educated and empowered, with good leadership, open communication, trained in book-keeping, transparent accounting; participatory land use planning; local liaison officer designated; flexible gov't guidelines support a single VNRC
TanzaKesho (integrated rural development)	Mbozi district		Problem assessment, planning and implementation of local level development	Increased access to technical advice from district extension workers in support of sustainable income-generating activities	Schools renovated, springs protected, forests protected, fuel efficient stoves, improved ag/livestock practices, improved community welfare, increased self-reliance	Intensive 2 week PRA to energize villagers; book-keeping training; study tours, responsible and accountable district government; communication and coordination, multi-sectoral approach
Cullman and Hurt	23 villages		Decisions about use of revenues from hunting	Funding of small community development projects, local facilities, water projects, drought relief	Reduced poaching, increased public awareness about conservation	Use of hunting fee surcharges to generate revenues for local community development; private sector handles financial management and community decides on use and contributes labor

Site/Activity	Community	Area (ha)	Powers Devolved	Economic Benefits	Other Key Results	Best Practices
Robanda	Hunters and pastoralists		Villagers negotiate agreements with tour operators; village decides on use of revenues	Improved schools, health services, water projects, food security, housing	Poaching has declined	Can capitalize on proximity to national parks to develop ventures with private companies, with facilitation, support for improved governance and development planning
Manyara Trustland		45,000	Creation of land trust, joint management of a ranch; community control over access to and use of ranch land	Seasonal access to water, pasture reserve; renovation of school facilities, increased opportunity for community benefit from wildlife based tourism	Increased collaboration between community and government authorities	Use Steering Committee and awareness campaign to improve governance in the management of the Trust; trained community game scouts to patrol

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